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ABSTRACT

This booklet is intended to guide educational administrators who are interested in instituting professional staff development programs and/or moving toward more innovative staffing patterns and procedures. The suggestions and examples presented will be helpful to administrators working at the individual school level as well as those contemplating a districtwide or citywide program. Separate chapters focus on developing the basis for a staff development program, analyzing student and teacher needs, building a teacher training program, assuming new leadership roles, and budgeting for new teaching roles. (Author/JG)

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Improving School Staffs

An Administrator's Guide to Staff Development

Volume III

AASA Executive Handbook Series

American Association of School Administrators
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FOREWORD

America's schools are in a constant state of change. Both general school administrators, as well as those at the individual building level, are constantly seeking new methods and techniques to improve the learning environment for the millions of young citizens attending the schools.

It is because of this age of change that many individual schools, as well as entire systems, are departing from the more traditional concepts of the past and are instituting new and exciting concepts to meet individual learning needs.

It is obvious that most, if not all, improvements in the education of children must begin with the individual teacher. It is the teacher in the classroom who holds the key to improved learning on the part of all youngsters.

This handbook has been developed to assist administrators interested in instituting professional staff development programs as well as those interested in moving to more innovative staffing patterns and procedures.

Since the schools of America, generally, are experiencing a downward trend in student enrollment, and the necessity to redeploy or reassign staff, there is no better time to think about new and different staffing patterns than the present.

AASA presents this handbook as a guide for those administrators who desire to make major changes in both their staffing patterns and their inservice programs for professional staff members. AASA does not endorse the concepts put forth in this publication, but offers them for serious study and possible adoption or adaptation to individual situations.

Donald K. Sharpes, the author, has had wide experience in developing and implementing various preprofessional and inservice educational programs. Presently an Associate Professor and Education Team Leader at Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, Reston, Va., Sharpes has previously taught at various universities throughout the nation. In addition, for five years he was a Program Manager in the United States Office of Education specializing in teacher training projects for schools, colleges and state agencies. Additional contributions to the preparation of this book were made by William E. Henry, AASA Associate Director.

Paul B. Salmon
Executive Director
AASA

Introduction

How This Book Will Help You Develop a More Effective Teaching Staff

The specific programs and procedures in this book include many basic departures from accepted or traditional administrative practices. Dramatic deviations from the traditional are required, however, for schools to adjust to the rapidly changing community, teacher and student needs. This detour from the commonly accepted is not a total abandonment of all accepted tradition; but clearly new modes of administering and organizing schools, particularly school staffs, are critical to the success of the school.

This is especially critical at this time when schools are reconsidering the use of all educational personnel due to many factors, the greatest of which are the over supply of teachers and fiscal constraints.

The contents of this book offers a few examples of how busy administrators can begin to develop a total staff development program. Determining present teacher needs is not an easy task. There is little available literature that covers both an understanding of the research on teaching effectiveness together with practical suggestions on how to analyze staff needs to build a strong training and staff development program.

The suggestions included in this book would be helpful for administrators who want to build only a local school project, as well as those who contemplate a district, county or metropolitan-wide program.

This book will help to answer such questions as: how to determine specific teacher and student needs; how to build a training program on performance standards; how to go about defining new responsibilities and experimenting with new roles for teachers; how to budget and plan for personnel costs and how to best utilize aides.

This volume is being written principally to place into the hands of experienced administrators workable suggestions for staff training and development. There cannot be "innovative" changes in educational programs that do not involve teachers, and particularly in-service training exercises. Moreover, the most fundamental changes that must occur in schools must first occur with teachers. We pay too

little attention to motivating staffs who must in turn motivate students.

The concepts and rationale for differentiated staffing and flexible staffing have profound implications for improving the teaching profession. Training that leads towards differentiated teaching staffs and salaries can offer hope for more effective learning and instruction. There is promise that new alternatives for making teachers more responsive in schools will help reshape preservice experiences in institutions which prepare teachers. This, in turn, will lead to a higher competence and consequently higher professional status for the career-oriented instructor. The professional and lay community will find it easier to hold both the schools and its educators more accountable.

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CHAPTER 1

Developing the Basis for a Staff Program

Put yourself as an administrator in the teacher's daily routine for a moment. Let's say a woman Language Arts teacher — probably one of the most common. The routine is likely not much different than that of other teachers. The bell rings and roll is taken. She asks the students to please sit down and be quiet because she has to attend to some bothersome administrative tasks. She arises from behind the desk and makes what she thinks is an impressive speech about the importance of today's lesson — if the kids are lucky maybe only 15 minutes. Then she notes that based on the "readings" (those abstractions from the real literature), the kids will have assignments. If she is innovative she lets the youngsters do most of the reading themselves aloud.

Then, having grouped the pupils according to their "comprehension" and "reading level" already, the teacher tells the kids how important it is to improve their ability to read and read the "right" things.

Finally, out comes the assignment sheet, probably still reeking of ditto fluid smells. The assignment sheet is the real clincher, because it "tests" whether or not the kids have really read the story. "Who killed cock robin?" "What was the motive?" "Describe the plot." "What was the purpose of the disguise?"

All the pupils now understand (as if they didn't already) that what is important is not reading, but whether or not the teacher thinks you have read the story and "comprehended" it. The important thing is to answer the questions. Instantly, all students stop reading and flip through the pages to find the answers to the questions on the assignment.

Sound familiar? It may be gross oversimplification to attribute the failure of students simply to the school. More than anything else what teachers largely seem to be communicating is an attitude of response that kids need to master in order to achieve in school. The image of the teacher is one of sometime harassment. It is also one of insistence that certain values be practiced — obedience, docility, conscientiousness, respect and the like.

Yet the ordinary teacher, however pilloried and caricatured, is at the heart of any educational program. What the alert administrator

wants more than anything else is to have ordinary teachers in his or her school performing in any extraordinary manner.

The issue then becomes, in sizing up the staff, to ask ourselves as administrators, what can we do that isn't happening now that we want to see done?

In curriculum: if three-quarters of the high schools in the country still require *Silas Marner*, despite nearly everyone's recommendation that it be dropped, must the school continue to order it?

In instruction: if nearly everyone agrees that lecturing is not the most profitable way for learning to proceed, what steps are you as an administrator taking to insure that teachers learn new techniques for small and individual instructional programs?

In staffing: if many agree that all teachers are good, but not necessarily interchangeably good, is there a better way of organizing the staff to accommodate student differences?

The procedures, regulations, codes and standardized behaviors exist in the school not in the binders of curriculum guides and administrative folders, nor in the collective minds of the school board, but in the perceptions of those who interpret through their example what it is they expect in the behavior of others.

Specifically, it is the leadership which determines the nature, mode and extent of the growth of the staff — within subjects, departments, academic areas and grades. Leadership's role is to contribute, by example as well as by exhortation, everyone's common awareness of mutual concerns and their speedy remedy.

To believe, as an administrator, in the progress essential to common solutions to common problems is to believe in the human capability of teachers to solve them.

Consequently, sizing up the staff is first of all an awareness that the staff is capable of meeting any challenge placed before it. If an administrator believes the teaching staff cannot confront and solve school problems, that lack of confidence will be conveyed to the staff through various actions.

A second issue in sizing up the staff is the concept that people want approval from others, especially supervisors and leaders. Teachers need to sense that their efforts are successful. They want to act without fear of reprisal or non-acceptance.

Most teachers will accept the work of a group as a positive value. But there will always be some who seem to feel uncomfortable in a group task. It may not be the nature of the task itself they consciously or subconsciously react against, but the fact that they have to conform to a group to accomplish it.

Administrators may need to seek explanations for why certain teachers or individuals work against the leadership. The way in

which leadership expresses itself may have to change as well as the policies leadership expresses. But allowing for the expression of causes of behavior is a healthy sign th t the administration is seeking, not just support for policy, but participation in policy-making. The practice of group interaction and participation by teachers is no a new concept. But it is a way to nurture compromises and avoid possible conflicts.

A third issue in sizing up the staff is the recognition of the collection of forces acting on the teacher that may sometimes make him or her sensitive to group participation and even other individual demands. The teachers are exposed, so to speak, often to the vague expectations of administrators, the pressure of always being on top of the subject, the behavior of other teachers, the sometimes conflicting demands of parents, and the raw nerves of students. The administrator who is aware of these possible sources of anxiety concerning job satisfaction and performance and who acts accordingly is the one who can respond most humanely.

Lastly, sizing up the staff is a matter of not just knowing the academic capabilities of teachers but their social and personal characteristics. It is also a question of anticipating expectations about how an individual teacher will respond within the climate of the school. The usefulness of knowing these issues is perhaps obvious to any administrator: to understand how teachers work together, why difficulties arise among the staff, and how to avoid them.

Putting Teacher Problems Into Sharper Focus: The Self-Fulfilling Prophecy

Many of the failures of attempts at educational reform can be traced to a failure to involve the teacher. The problems of teachers range from better working conditions, salary, tenure, to issues associated with teachers' rights. But probably the most conspicuous problems of teachers evolve around those that have to do with students and classes. One frame of reference for looking at teacher problems is to consider teachers' expectations for students and administrators' expectations of teachers.

Like anyone else, teachers tend to do what is expected of them. If an administrator evaluates them on the splashy color of their bulletin boards, they will assuredly dress them up in bold, striking visuals — whether or not they believe it has anything to do with teaching competence. Teachers, then, will act in accordance with the expectations of an administrator who expects certain behavior, even though it might be a false one.

The tendency to act in accordance with the expectations of others is often referred to as the self-fulfilling prophecy.

Consider the following parable from the world of pedagogical research. Mr. Marvis Median, an assistant professor at the local university's College of Education, believes (as do most of his colleagues) that teachers have more or less equal abilities and talents within their respective disciplines. Perhaps this is partially true of the teachers he has known.

But because he believes that few differences exist among teachers, he struggles with contrived research designs to substantiate what established status differences have already been defined by the school system. For example, because he believes that teachers do not use recent research findings in their teaching, he does not conduct such research studies himself. Teachers, because they perceive that no one is interested in whether or not they apply research (it is not something they are evaluated on, for instance), see no incentive or motivation to carry out their duties using the results of applied research. No such defined responsibility exists within the school structure of teaching.

Thus do teachers fulfill the belief of the researcher, and others, that they never apply research in their teaching. End of parable.

The attitude of the researcher (and here understand, Mr. Adrian Administrator) comes true because it is acted upon as if it were true. People do what they think others expect of them.

Studies in comparative teaching behavior tend to be dominated by the self-fulfilling hypothesis. But there is a false premise that teachers are different only in that in which the school system defines them to be different.

By the same token, a teacher's expectations for a student can affect student performance. The teacher who assumes that even one of his or her students *can't* learn is likely to discover that the child actually doesn't achieve according to his or her specifications for performance. The student senses the expectations of the teacher and responds as if it were actually true.

Thus, there are twin related issues to understanding teacher problems: how an administrator views teachers and what he or she expects of them; and how teachers view students, and what they expect of them.

Frank discussions about expectations in faculty sessions could lead to an awareness of how to limit false expectations about people's performance. How children learn and how teachers learn and teach is at the heart of the process. Anything that leads to increased understanding about each's performance will likely substantially improve the school's climate. Discussions about how an administrator can perhaps subconsciously hold erroneous expectations about others is a good beginning in understanding teacher problems.

Measuring Instructional Skills

It would seem common sense to place people working at the level of their best talent. Employment agencies, business and industry hire and promote on the basis of special manpower required and demonstrated competence. Yet school systems continue to hire and advance in pay teachers on the basis of number of credits earned and number of years on the job.

Thus, the teaching profession cultivates a number of subject area specialists and the professional teachers naturally assume that their professionalism rests on their competence within their discipline or subject.

Yet common sense also dictates that the mark of an effective teacher is not necessarily knowledge of music or PE or English or science, but how well students learn those and other subjects. Who is the teacher who is most effective in transferring the *ability* to teach? Which teacher is most influential with the students? Who on the staff ranks highest in making students become interested in subjects not taught in the school?

Notice that none of the questions concerns *what the teacher knows*. Yet administrators know that the "best" or "most effective" teachers are not always the most knowledgeable about their subjects. But observe also that the teaching profession *expects* that because teachers are knowledgeable they will also be competent in teaching. Because the profession does not accord a different status for the recognizably more effective teacher, the teacher himself does not regard his teaching as a matter of professional pride.

The self-fulfilling hypothesis is also applicable in the way in which administrators look at the problem of measuring instructional skills. All of us tend to associate instructional skills with those teaching activities that are actually being conducted by the staff in our school. Yet how often have we encouraged experimental and innovative teaching habits and evaluated teachers on such activities?

Instructional skills might simply be all those that the staff of a particular school possess. Or they might be certain skills that no teacher has. Or again they might be skills that some have in some degree (but not enough), others should have but don't, still others will likely never possess — even though they may know a lot about ninth century Persian art.

As administrators evaluating instructional effectiveness (keeping in mind that attitudes about *expected* behavior help shape and reinforce *actual* behavior) we will want to differentiate teaching effectiveness by judging performance of teachers according to how well they help advance student learning. We need to cultivate teaching

positions based on differentiated levels of responsibility, both for those on our staff who do not yet qualify as knowledgeable in their disciplines (as some beginning teachers occasionally are), and for those who have a knowledge and ability to teach more than one discipline. In short, we need to differentiate at the very least between our beginning teachers and our teaching scholars.

One of the central themes of this book is that administrators can devise strategies for knowing what skills the staff has, what skills it needs, and how administrators can satisfy teachers' needs.

We can break down the complexity of the teaching act into more easily learned instructional skills. Some techniques for analyzing and measuring specific teaching behaviors were first developed with the microteaching program at Stanford University. Microteaching is an actual teaching situation which is usually scaled down in time and numbers of students. It is usually videotaped. The lesson is scaled down to reduce some of the complexities of the teaching act so that the teacher can focus on selected teaching behaviors.

Some of these specific behaviors include:

- Set Induction
- Establishing Appropriate Frames of Reference
- Cuing
- Recognizing Attending Behavior
- Control of Participation
- Illustrating and Use of Examples
- Questioning: Fluency in Asking, Probing, Divergent, etc.
- Silence and Non-Verbal Cues
- Lecturing
- Stimulus Variation

Measuring instructional skills, then, involves first of all identifying specific teaching behaviors and observing the frequency and intensity of their performance. However, it must be noted that these particular skills relate only to *classroom* behaviors. As described later, a flexible staff will likely have differentiated other activities related to a whole range of specific teaching acts.

The majority of teachers still talk or lecture, give assignments in workbooks or lab manuals, and grade papers. The cycle is complete when they plan their next lecture. But where can we find such universally needed and essential teaching activities as:

- the demonstration of a film or slide-tape on what to learn and how to learn it?
- the practice of student use of technology?
- the practice of student-inspired discussions as responses to their learning needs?

- plans of further teaching activities based on individual or group learning difficulties?
- the consistent discovery by the teacher and students of places and things to learn which are outside the class and school?

Besides a variety of essential teaching tasks, there is also a variety of techniques of how to teach each task. The energy and time the profession now wastes on developing, or even identifying, the "good teacher," the "effective teacher", would be more economically spent in recognizing the differing steps in teacher development and organize teachers so as best to capitalize on differing student and teacher potential and abilities.

Providing Leadership Through Training

The "effective" teacher interprets his knowledge and understanding of the world to others, and causes them to do likewise.

An English teacher wants students to feel the excitement, on a hot Wednesday afternoon, of Milton's poetry that he or she feels. A Physics teacher wants students to master the science of "doing" physics, not just knowing the constructs about gravity, motion, and energy. The Social Studies teacher feels that it is important for students to know the causes of World War I, because, if for no other reason, the past is prologue.

Which of these teachers is more "effective"? The answer may be as ambiguous as the question. Yet it is the kind of question educators ask of each other. One response is that all teachers are equally effective. They all must be equal, the argument goes, because they all have identical responsibilities for teaching — in time alloted, curriculum, and numbers of students.

The question about the "effective" teacher, whatever we understand it to be, highlights the dilemma of the "classroom" teacher. He or she, together with the students, is cabined, cribbed and confined by the restricting limitations schools place on his ability to decide what is meaningful to learn.

There are relatively few ways of making the complexity of teaching more manageable. It would be ideal to have teachers versed in theoretical perspectives, concepts, theories, and have the intellectual agility of a professional politician, trial lawyer, and civil parliamentarian. But it is more realistic to program training activities on an increased understanding and use of fundamental teaching techniques that will stimulate and reinforce positive student behaviors.

Some general concepts may prove useful.

A comprehensive inservice training project for teaching leadership will have the paradoxical feature of unique levels for particular roles. Historically, inservice training has been either a series of additional

courses in subjects, units in teaching and educational innovations, or some combination of both.

However, programs in continuing professional teacher education and training will possess at least three kinds of levels: entry, specialized and technical, and professional. In turn, of course, each level will have differentiated sections. An individual teacher could be professionally competent as a reading teacher, only average in the application of the techniques of small group instruction, and a beginner at knowing and applying cultural differences to psychological needs of children.

Not all teachers, consequently, will be, or will be expected to be, professionally competent in all subjects, techniques, skills, or knowledges. But in that required by the career role they aspire to, there will be training opportunities leading to specific teaching functions and known differentiated roles.

There may or may not be, for instance, a difference between training a counselor in vocational guidance, training a counselor to train other teachers in vocational guidance and/or using a vocational education teacher to counsel students in vocational subjects. It is not the nature of the subject or services that is in question, but the nature of responsibility and degree of training and level of training: not what is to be done, but who is to do it and how.

Another issue in providing leadership training is the distinction between education and training. Parts of a comprehensive teacher training program may not include any features that relate to job satisfaction. They may only provide personal and therefore humanely satisfying experiences. Administrators planning for teaching leadership training activities will have to consider the extent of the program that is educationally satisfying for teachers, but not particularly oriented to training for teaching proficiency. In reality, the choice for administrators will respond to the question, "To what extent does the school provide for personal as opposed to institutional satisfaction?" It is not an easy question to answer, but gives some indication of the priorities of those developing the program.

Evaluating Teacher Strengths & Weaknesses

The fixity of the curriculum and the common disciplines of knowledge made it imperative in the growing days of the American school that all teachers receive equal status. That view still prevails even though we know much more about children's special needs. Differences in the perceptions of teacher status arose many years ago over the controversy about the qualifications of some teachers — voca-

tional, for example — as opposed to supposedly others more academically trained.

We evaluate the strengths and weaknesses of teachers in the same way in which we should evaluate the strengths and weaknesses of students, with tests that measure differential aptitude and performance. To use an analogy from the *rate of learning* from educational psychology, the way in which teachers "grow professionally" is not necessary consistently the same from one task to another.

The central hypothesis, formulated in a variety of ways is that teachers are not all equally prepared, do not have equal teaching abilities, nor equal knowledge of subjects, and that consequently their teaching effectiveness can only be equated with differential student learning ability. This means that there must be first of all differential instructional opportunities — both so that students can learn, and according to which teachers can best teach.

The overall recommendation is that administrators develop inservice training projects that experiment with differential school variables, design and experiment with appropriate responsibility levels for teachers, and test all that against student progress.

Until this time we have let the school as an organization determine the parameters of success or failure — the grade levels, the classroom, the disciplines, etc. As administrators, it is past time when programs ought to be defined that will allow for flexibility in student progress, teacher adaptation to that changing flexibility, and a program with modules adaptable to emerging teaching performance standards for training purposes.

Differentiated staffing or flexible use of educational personnel, under this understanding, is making a teacher(s) available to the students(s) who needs him most at the time he needs him and according to his need.

Training exercises, as a result, will also be available to help teachers learn those specific skills demanded of them by their particular teaching tasks. Growing competence in a wide variety of knowledges and skills will allow them to assume greater responsibility according to student need, in the school program.

All of this implies several tasks that the administrator might not want to approach simultaneously: capitalizing on existing teacher talent, training all teachers where they are specifically deficient in their area of responsibility, and modifying the school pattern in which they teach differentially.

Four Ways of Beginning Training

There are at least four distinctly separate ways of beginning. First, we could adapt a few teachers within an already existing program,

department, subject or grade level. The training for differential competencies might begin with the English and foreign language teachers, for example.

Second, match the training goals to specific needs of the individual teachers. A simple survey devised and administered by teachers might easily reveal that many teachers would be interested in learning about research on teaching effectiveness, adolescent psychology, or reading readiness.

Third, adapt the training only to those willing to volunteer and participate in a new program. The training for new staffing patterns thus distinguishes between those who want to align themselves differently and those that don't.

Fourth, with teacher cooperation adapt the instructional program — large and small group, teacher-student and student-student tutorials, laboratories, etc. — and let teachers participate in experimenting with differential instructional methods school-wide.

Each of these approaches depends on whether we choose to begin the program with a part of the organization, the individual and collective needs of few teachers, self-selected participants, or the instructional modes. Each offers advantages over the others.

The important point in this time of teacher retrenchment and fiscal restraint is perhaps all too obvious. The percentage of teachers leaving is much lower than it was a decade ago. The consequences are that because more teachers will be remaining, the school system which wishes to improve its teaching quality, or even stabilize it as knowledge and techniques change, will have to rely on more practical and orderly inservice and staff development programs.

As teachers develop, so does a school and a school system. As schools encounter a public more demanding of improved instruction on the one side, and economic recession and dwindling dollars on the other, each system needs a long and deliberative look at its own practices for staff training and professional improvement.

CHAPTER 2

How to Analyze Student, Teacher and Administrator Needs

"Educational Needs" has always been an ambiguous term. The "needs" of children and youth and the "needs" of teachers are defined by the goals and values educators place on them, and the availability of resources for pursuing them. The "needs" depend on which goals administrators and teachers select from a host of others, each competing for priority.

If a school is committed to "upgrading the quality of teaching," there has to be a criterion for deciding when the staff is sufficiently upgraded. Even if the need for "upgrading" is quantified or described appropriately, administrators may later decide that the initial goals for staff development were unrealistic.

The only meaningful way in which a school can ascertain the requirements for a staff development or inservice training program is to set certain targets for skill development, and to determine whether or not an inservice program moves to satisfy those targets. The implementation of the plan is a policy decision. But no such policy decision can be made about inservice training without an analysis of target goals first.

How does an administrator go about determining what the needs of teachers are? It would appear at first blush that the answer would be to conduct a survey of what teachers feel they need. However, assessing teacher needs is more than surveying present attitudes about teaching requirements. An extreme course of action would be for an administrator to assume what the needs of teachers were and to develop a program for them without their consultation.

There cannot logically be a complete Needs Assessment for teachers without first conducting a Needs Assessment for students. This needs no defense. The process itself may require some explanation.

A Needs Assessment is the cornerstone of educational planning. It can provide a school with the essential information about school and student performance and progress. It can lead to developing issues in program development, budgeting, cost analyses, program monitoring and evaluation.

But above all a Needs Assessment involves people in the schools

and communities. It should call for the participation of parents, students, teachers, administrators and local organizations. It is an opportunity for administrators especially to seek new sources of information, values and approaches.

There is no standard approach to doing a Needs Assessment. The state of the art is not that well advanced. But the pragmatic approach of ordering priorities offers an acid test alternative to the random process of arbitrarily choosing goals and guessing what methods.

To begin to conduct a Needs Assessment for students, administrators could decide first on broad, developmental areas such as Cognitive, Affective, Psychomotor and Environmental; and then develop within each category appropriate goals and statements which best describe what the school wants to do.

For example, goals might be stated under each developmental area in such specific contexts as

COGNITIVE *Arithmetic Concepts*
- Comprehension in numbers and sets
- positional notation
- equations
- number principles

AFFECTIVE *Attitude*
- toward self (self-concept, esteem, image)
- toward school and/or community
- toward learning

PSYCHOMOTOR *Physical Health*
- general health
- vision
- hearing
- dental health

ENVIRONMENTAL *Home Support*
- economic security
- shelter
- clothing
- parental involvement in school affairs

How does the process of conducting a Needs Assessment for students, teachers, and administrators work in actual practice?

The basic tasks for conducting one are:

1. Agreeing on the fundamental policies
2. Describing the approach
3. Developing the methodology
4. Conducting the assessment

5. Analyzing the results
6. Selecting priority goals and objectives
7. Translating results into program

If, for example, a basic policy is to serve the special needs of disadvantaged or minority children and youth, then the approach agreed upon may be through staff development, and the methodology would survey and test for attitudes, characteristics and skills which best serve that particular student population. The outcomes would then hopefully result in new priorities for assigning teachers with particular aptitudes to such students, and a program which differentiates similar kinds of teachers, and changes hiring, recruiting, and assigning practices.

Analyzing Student Needs

The primary requisite for beginning to develop a comprehensive staff development program is an assessment of the students' learning strengths and weaknesses. The knowledge of such an assessment will assist principals, curriculum planners, and other educational policy-makers in building the program for training teachers.

Although all administrators are conscious of the value of such an effort, few school systems have continuously operated assessment plans. Such a student assessment would minimally include whether or not:

- students are acquiring the school's goals and how well
- teachers are helping students meet their potential
- the administration is allocating the resources appropriate to meeting the school's goals
- goals ought to be reformulated.

The foundation of the program is obviously student and child-centered.

The idea is not only to uncover a child's learning, social or behavioral potential and deficiencies, but to probe successful programs for factors which could be transferred.

There are at least three steps to follow in making administrative policy decisions about conducting an analysis of student learning needs.

1. The first policy decision involves selecting *which children and/or schools will be surveyed.* Compensatory education programs provide a ready-made and available source. Children who receive Title I money would be a useful population for the survey.

2. The second decision is to *select the goals* or criteria for satisfying learning deficiencies or transferring successful programs. For example, a realistic goal might include stressing a basic skill, such as

upgrading a given reading score for disadvantaged children by one grade level. Another might be improving the social environment of the classroom, which could affect the children's affective behavior. Thus, the goals could include one child development strategy such as cognitive or affective, or a strategy for the whole child which stressed all developmental components.

3. The third administrative policy decision is the *determination of standard performance desired.* This will include possibly one of three measures:

- *a minimum* (for example, one-half year jump in reading scores as measured by standardized tests);
- an *average* or median (as measured by the state average score, for example);
- an *ideal* or the standard of excellence the school strives for.

Relating Student Needs to Teachers' Needs

Hand in glove with the policies for establishing a student Needs Assessment will likely go policies for assessing teachers' needs. That first of all involves defining the nature of teaching needs. Some may be purely instructional, others curricular, many will relate to student performance. Still others are the professional needs of the teacher. Largely, however, teacher needs, particularly as they relate to instructional responsibilities, have little meaning apart from the way in which they influence student learning. Consequently, and again, an analysis of teacher needs must be preceded by an analysis of student needs.

Charles Silberman, in his three year study of American education sponsored by the Carnegie Corporation which resulted in *Crisis in the Classroom*, makes the same distinction about teaching and learning.

> But without changing the ways in which schools operate and teachers teach, changing the curriculum alone does not have much effect . . . They [the curriculum reformers of the 1960's] somehow assumed that students would learn what the teachers taught; that is, if teachers presented the material in the proper structure, students would learn it that way. Thus, they assumed implicitly that teaching and learning are merely opposite sides of the same coin. But they are not . . . .
>
> (Charles E. Silberman, New York, Random House, p. 181)

Doing a Teacher Needs Assessment will be more systematic and successful the larger the number of teachers included, both in the

development of the instruments and policy and in the conduct of the survey. It should not be conducted hastily or superficially.

If the talents of many teachers leave much to be coveted, an ideal of what one teacher's influence could be is a beginning. Spelling out the performance indicators for the standard of excellence the school or system is striving for in teaching may be one way of pinpointing expectations, goals, and planning objectives for developing individual performance indexes for teachers. The state agency's performance plans and goals for teachers may be another starting point.

Relating students' needs to teachers' needs will involve more than tinkering with slight alterations in how teachers work with students. It will involve more than just adjusting working conditions, making classes smaller, hiring aides, or buying curriculum guides, helpful as such improvements doubtless are. It will demand a total re-thinking of how teachers can relate to students and in what ways.

Consider this. Is it possible that reorganizing the way in which teachers can relate to students might be better than attempting to increase overall something called "teacher effectiveness"? A basic question thus becomes, can we do a better job in the schools by reorganizing present and trainable staff competencies, rather than trying to increase everyone's competencies upward? Do we suffer from a lack of knowledge about what to do, or a lack of will in doing it?

Projecting Future Teaching Needs: The Index to Innovation

Forecasting teacher needs will first of all entail estimating the number and kind of personnel required over a defined period of time, for example, from one to five years. An administrator may choose to hire more paraprofessionals over a three year time span, and by attrition reduce the teaching staff, and thus the total personnel cost of the system. Or he may hire specialists and less "regular" teachers. Or he may use discretionary funds to contract with teachers for certain "extra" kinds of teaching services (such as curriculum planning), and limit the number of new teachers hired.

Some of the elements in forecasting teacher requirements as a basis for expanding the total number of educational personnel in a growing area might include:

1. An inventory of educational personnel-administrators, teachers, and supporting staff — for a particular base year;
2. A differentiation of the classification of the occupation, such as "Administrator, Coordinator of Federal Projects," or "Paraprofessional, Elementary Teachers' Aide," or "Paraprofessional, Graphic Artist Secondary";

3. An estimation of the size of the total educational personnel requirements by the chosen occupational classification system;
4. A forecast of the total number of educational personnel for a given target year and years thereafter to plan the nature of recruiting services.

The differentiation into classifications of particular teaching and non-instructional activities is crucial to estimating specific educational personnel requirements. For example, a comprehensive task analysis of the position of "Coordinator of Federal Projects" may reveal that much of the work flow can be accomplished by a research assistant, thus freeing the professional for different responsibilities.

The development of a comprehensive task analysis requires the efforts of a team of professional educators, programmers, and other kinds of planners. It is the beginning of a process for institutionalizing a flexible staffing design.

Surveys of existing teaching or non-instructional tasks have limited value unless they lead to a forecast of how new staffing patterns will emerge. Finding out what activities the teaching staff is now engaged in is only useful to the extent that that information is unavailable. The gathering of such data is useless unless it becomes the basis for making decisions about changing recruiting and assignment practices, teacher evaluation and other decision-making strategies. If the basic decision is to change personnel practices, conducting a survey is academic, unless the results are used to substantiate instructions and perceptions already made by administrators.

However, if decisions have already been agreed upon by administrators and staff — say, to analyze what school innovations are most important — then a simple survey form could be useful.

The form included in this chapter is a sample of the kind any administrator could develop to determine what a staff thinks about innovations already working in the school, under consideration, or not applicable. It is perhaps a little more elaborate than might be needed, yet its completeness could provide discussion in faculty sessions.

Under each heading — "changes," "technology," and "resources" — there is a 1-5 scale for marking preferences. Under "technology" for example with *Basic Reading Skills*, an administrator could discover that a majority of the staff thinks that display screens are optional rather than necessary. He or she then can use that knowledge to avoid ordering expensive equipment that a staff is not prepared to use. A variety of other choices are available: train teachers in the use of display screens; spend the allotted money pur-

chasing what teachers are prepared to use (perhaps only tapes and filmstrips); spend the money on that innovation the teachers think is most successful; etc.

Specifying Administrative Needs

The factors determining administrative appointments and the distribution of administrative responsibilities are well known within the operation of the school or system. The growing number and complex nature of administrative services makes predicting future administrative needs hazardous. However, when we predict accurately the extent of administrative personnel needs over five or ten years we will be able to estimate better the nature of the changing administrative hierarchy.

There are at least three ways of estimating future administrative personnel requirements. One is by analyzing population and employment trends. A second is by estimating the administrative composition and its productivity. A third is by projecting future responsibilities based upon the adoption of certain innovative practices.

1. *Estimating Population and Employment Trends*

One of the easiest ways of projecting future administrative personnel needs is to assess the population trends in the geographic area of the school or system. For example, estimates of average families with school-aged children might be correlated with future requirements of local manufacturers, business or industries in the vicinity in order to compute projected school population size. The possible decision of how to reduce administrative personnel as school population declines will remain a difficult one. Morale must be weighed against cost efficiency.

2. *Estimating Administrative Composition and Productivity*

Before elevating new people to administrative positions, or creating an administrative ladder, it may be well to plan on production needed from administrative personnel. Over a given period of time what specific production requirements can a school board or superintendent expect of the entire administrative staff? The answer lies first in determining what productivity will be required of the supporting administration. Projected administrative employment, based on this approach, will be closely and logically related to projections of administrative output.

Educational planners will not be able to predict what *will happen* so much as they will *how to relate people's needs to their work.* Decisions will almost certainly revolve around the answer to the following question: Given greater productivity expected from administrators

TABLE 1

Index to Innovations

	Changes 1-5	Technology 15, a-e	Resources I,II,III 1-5
1. Curriculum			
a. Basic Reading Skills			
b. Language development			
c. Bilingual support			
d. Ethnic studies			
e. Discipline development			
2. Administration and Organization			
a. Personnel (differentiated staffing)			
b. Testing practices			
c. Flexible scheduling			
d. Facilities			
e. Multi-unit schools, non-gradedness, etc.			
f. Instructional program (group variability)			
g. Accounting, budgeting			
3. Materials			
a. Computers			
b. VTR, machines, etc.			
c. Instruction and resource centers			
4. Staffing			
a. Inservice training			
b. Microteaching			
c. Group dynamics (sensitivity training, etc.)			
d. Aides and volunteers			
e. Performance objectives			
5. Community Relations			
a. Local parent groups			
b. Federal & State sponsored advisory groups			
c. Administrative centers for community relations			

SAMPLE SCALE FOR USE WITH *INDEX TO INNOVATIONS*

CHANGES

1. no changes necessary
2. changes considered
3. some changes necessary
4. major modification required
5. total revision necessary

TECHNOLOGY

1. books, periodicals, and records
2. tapes, records, filmstrips
3. recording labs, microfilm storage, display screens
4. experimental studies with VTR recording and monitoring equipment
5. desk and console computers, closed circuit TV
   a. unnecessary
   b. optional
   c. desirable
   d. necessary
   e. indispensable

RESOURCES AVAILABLE

I. Degree of Commitment
   1. willing to accept information
   2. undecided about changes necessary
   3. committed to changes
   4. committed to major modification
   5. totally committed to complete revision

II. Money Earmarked for Educational Change in School Districts
   1. insufficient in every line item
   2. barely able to make progress
   3. board approval for any financial changes
   4. sufficient, but major budget shifts necessary
   5. sufficient, but some account modification required

III. Personnel
   1. no personnel available
   2. people available and willing but no funds
   3. one person assigned by staff help insufficient and funds lacking
   4. small staff but full support lacking
   5. staff or center operating with full support

in the future, is it better to overload present staff, hire more staff, diffuse staff responsibilities, or some combination? An analysis of surveys conducted of the present composition of administrative assignment, together with estimates of future productivity, will aid that kind of decision.

3. *Estimating Future Administrative Responsibilities*

One way of conducting anticipated administrative requirements is to estimate administrators per teacher or per student. Applying a ratio system has no validity in itself except that it is useful in arriving at a standardization of numbers of people serving others in a hierarchy. However, if ratios are already used, and if ratios of administrators to existing teachers or students is considered adequate, then future administrative requirements can be calculated by applying present ratios to projected student and/or teacher populations.

The number of administrators is proportional to the services in the school: Will the school hire more coordinators, for example, if a federal educational program is terminated?

If administrators have given enough attention to the development of a classification or matrix of administrative responsibilities, they will be better able to project future requirements. They will also be better able to begin the process of differentiating the complexity of emerging administrative needs.

Administrative qualifications are a case in point. What qualifications, for example, does a coordinator of a human relations education program need? Number of years of formal schooling, degrees and credits, together with demonstrated administrative experiences may only be partial requirements needed.

Specifying the need for administrators lies in specifying what criteria for needs is acceptable. What investments are administrators willing to place on their own continued training . . . in personnel management, budget, programming and planning (to name a few) as compared with other defined school needs? From an administrator's viewpoint, the fulfillment of a need — additional training in executive management or urban studies, for example — is a consumptive one. From the vantage of other clients — students, teachers, the community — the returns are an investment. The decision of choosing between a welter of needs is thus always political (that is, involving other people), and the best that administrators as planners can do is indicate the cost and possible educational implications of alternative policy decisions.

Summary and Example

The question of assessing teacher needs involves first of all defining the nature of needs. The principal premise is not teacher needs,

as they relate to professional instructional responsibilities, because they have little meaning apart from the way in which they influence student learning. Hence, an analysis of teachers' "needs" must be preceded by an analysis of students' "needs."

The student Needs Assessment includes selecting children and schools surveyed, and deciding on goals and performance desired. An inventory or taxonomy of teacher duties will not likely be useful unless it is a preliminary step to differentiating responsibilities. One initial approach might be to survey teacher attitudes towards student needs, on something like "innovations." The results of surveys can form the basis for planning for staff development activities.

New staffing patterns can emerge from estimates of how many instructors are needed for a particular area of responsibility. Do numbers of students or responsibility criteria determine the number of teachers assigned to a teaching team? The answer depends on whether or not an arbitrary student-teacher ratio determines teaching assignments within the team, or whether the learning needs of students prevail.

Assessing administrative requirements involves estimating the kinds of administrators needed over time, their future productivity and levels of responsibility.

A good example of how to carry out a Needs Assessment was completed by the LeFlore County Schools in Greenwood, Mississippi. The district administration set out to inventory the resources of the district, review the management practices, and conduct a Needs Assessment.

They interviewed parents, school dropouts, students, graduates, teachers, administrators, and governmental representatives. On the basis of results of the standardized tests, administrators established a priority of needs.

The greatest change resulting from this project, funded from federal sources to help reform the administration of compensatory education efforts, was the formulation of a plan for the improvement of the management of the instructional program. The academic achievement of the students in the county was far below the national norm as determined by standardized testing. On questionnaires administered as a part of the Needs Assessment a majority of the pupils expressed negative attitudes towards the school and teachers. A vast majority of the teachers and administrators showed a recognition of these problems through their responses. They expressed a need for more inservice training and individualized instruction.

The program agreed upon was a training enterprise that taught principals and teachers how to plan for and carry out individualized instruction and how to develop a more positive student-teacher rela-

tionship. Workshops were subsequently planned for administrators and nongraded primary teachers and aides.

LeFlore County school administrators had agreed on:

1. *fundamental policies* — that the elementary schools and particularly the pupils having the greatest difficulty with the academic program, would be the focal point;

2. *the approach* — a survey of a variety of people serving and served by the schools;

3. *the methodology* — a survey instrument and questionnaire form for each kind interviewed;

4. *conducting the assessment* — a local educational consulting firm;

5. *analyzing the results* — which confirmed much of the guesswork and haphazard conjecture;

6. *selecting priority goals* — an inservice training program for administrators (mostly elementary school principals) and teachers;

7. *the program itself* — a series of workshops throughout the summer and school year.

The sequence of activities in the training program went something like this: for two weeks eleven elementary principals studied scheduling, budgeting, and new methods of supervision for teachers. Then they engaged with teachers in a three-day workshop on improving student-teacher relationships, studied school non-graded organization plans, and worked on improving skills they had identified from an earlier workshop. The remaining time they spent in designing an operational plan for their school, based on what they had learned in the workshop with teachers.

Other school situations might differ. The point is that the entire program grew from documentation of what student needs were.

The qualitative aspects of identifying needs are of course more important even in the planning of a training program than any quantitative measurements. Intelligent planning cannot be executed without considering their benefits. Insofar as intelligent progress in teaching content and curriculum improvements are concerned, deliberations about substantive programs for teachers and administrators should always be under continuous study and review.

Yardsticks that measure the quality of education would ease the strain of evaluating progress. But it would not solve the problem of deciding what measures we want for quality. The controversies among and between professional groups testify to the nature and extent of the disagreements about criteria. The inevitability of differences ought not to deter serious planning and negotiation for compromises.

The evaluation of whatever is developed from training activities

will be viewed from the standpoint of performance. The training will be successful to the extent and degree it makes administrative and teaching roles in the system more enjoyable, responsive, humane, and competent.

Lastly, no educational decisions, particularly those which affect staffing and school personnel administration, can be judiciously made without clear statements of desired student and staff learning outcomes and expectations. The ultimate difference between a school or school system with a fixed number of students to a fixed number of teachers assigned to a classroom, and a highly mobile team or groups of teams of professional teachers will be in the attainment of learning objectives.

Objectives for both students and staff resulting from assessments of needs will insure a continuity of effort and likely a high degree of staff accountability.

CHAPTER 3

Building a Teacher Training Program

Not the least of the curiosities of this age is that those who stand up to the idealistic yen for teaching and public service come from working class families. Perhaps here and there a child of special privilege does not know the blisters from the hoe, the delight of no privacy, the hard economics of the paper route. There is no mystery in their urge for service and their sense of duty. Most are men and women of devotion and decency, perhaps even boringly so. All have at one time had a spark in themselves that they later ignited in others.

The following vignettes serve as a theoretical, perhaps typical cross-section of some such teachers. They represent the diversity of personalities that make up a staff, and begin to point to some of the problems inherent in planning staff development exercises based on performance.

George is the philosopher-teacher. He is well read, open for all to see, like the sky. His ideas well up almost mysteriously, but because they are not frequently well-articulated are not easily grasped. His judgment seems at times to be erratic. But that may be because he often manifests a singular intensity. His dress is modish but not rakish. With a small group of students he succeeds where few other teachers have. They seek him out whenever they can. Their desire for dialogue is not as great as his, but he offers his time willingly and his answers arouse new interest in them. Oh, by the way, he has very long hair.

Sandy is always on the threshold of adventure. She is young, loves to travel, and has an imperishable buoyancy. Her urge is not so much to inform as to titillate by telling stories or rhyming words. Her laughter spills across the room and often carries down the corridors. Her relations with most students is casual, but not random or arbitrary. They perhaps sense this lack of seriousness, but nonetheless appreciate her company and the sprightliness she conveys. She always has their attention. Classes are almost always full of surprises and many of her immediate reactions are akin to laughter. She smiles quickly.

More than some other teachers, *Ronald* exudes the faint essence of mystery. He always seems to move into a room trailing wonder.

"We've got to get out of the psychology of thinking that our problems don't have solutions," he says. "The solutions are in our hearts." Ronald is big and powerful, a former second-string all-state guard in football. There is a sensitivity about him though. Sometimes there's almost a mystery in the words he utters . . . "We need more love in our lives." Sometimes his thoughts seem too simple and direct. It is almost as if he came to teach by showing off the breadth of his shoulders, rather than the breadth of his ideas. The complexities of history are not his strength. Neither are the subtleties of teaching style. Yet there is a kind of fearless thing in his look and in his diction. It intrigues most of his students. It is still not clear to them whether this is naivete or a special form of courage. Ronald's life had been hard. He remembers his farm background and the frigid winters he had to endure on his grandfather's farm north in the mountains. Teachers aren't often sure how to take Ronald. His seriousness is overpowering, yet occasionally the simplicity of his thoughts cause some to ponder.

Of course a case could be drawn for student vignettes too. These hypothetical teacher descriptions are only for the purpose of demonstrating that a staff development program begins with the teacher with such distinct personality characteristics that they, like students, need individualized instruction.

They may first need to be identified as being adequate for comprehensive training. It may not be essential to develop all teachers at the same time and in the same way. Some teachers may be suitable for many students, but have short-term career teaching aspirations. The question then is: "How much should the school invest in training in an adequate teacher who has limited staying power in the system or profession?" Should the system invest more in training in the more well-qualified teacher, who is mobile and not likely to remain long in teaching, or the sufficient teacher who is? What is the most cost-efficient measure of training when correlated with career aspirations?

In economically difficult times, it is hard to tell if a teacher is career-bound or just unable to locate suitable and satisfying employment elsewhere.

Developing a Performance-Based Program

The essence of a program based on performance is that it is specific. We expect teachers to perform satisfactorily, but often the exact nature of the performance is unclear. Performance-based programs, whether preservice or inservice, offer the profession an opportunity

to clarify precisely which types of teaching behaviors are acceptable and in what degree.

It is not difficult to enumerate what might be some leadership qualities among teachers, or some critical capability checkpoints for effective teaching. They might include such characteristics as: drive, responsibility, analytical ability, creative capacity, foresight, communicative skills, teaching proficiency, sociability, resourcefulness or judgment.

These are common leadership type qualities. These particular ones are used in evaluating and promoting executives in certain corporations. But they might easily be those that administrators could use to weigh teachers.

However, wherever we obtain characteristics we think are important, or use those that are standard among the profession we run the risk of isolating *personal* characteristics from judgments of how well students are performing.

Building a teacher training program cannot ignore that fact. Consequently, one key judgment about how well teachers are performing is to measure teaching behaviors against whatever criteria we think is acceptable for student progress.

But the question of who sets standards for performance will depend on the levels of performance required and of whom they are required. It will also likely always be a compromise between students, community groups, individual teachers, the profession in general (including unions and associations), or some coalition of forces.

However, the central issue in establishing ground rules for a new teacher training program, presumably based on measurable teacher performance, is not just a simple satisfying of criteria once they are determined. It is the management of new attitudes about being precise in determining whether or not teachers have done what they set out to do. That requires that they first know what they want to do. Goal-setting is the beginning of developing expectations about performance.

Defining Career Expectations

For a teacher to decide early on teaching as a permanent career is unusual. For large numbers of younger teachers, and even larger numbers of prospective teachers, teaching is not a permanent career goal, but rather a kind of insurance.

Furthermore, there is little about most inservice programs that constructively promotes career teaching opportunities. From studies

conducted throughout the last decade, most teachers use graduate studies as preparation for counseling, administration, or other leadership positions outside the regular classroom. Charles Silberman in *Crisis in the Classroom* says:

> "Under the conventional system, ambitious teachers have no option but to leave the classroom for administration if they are to increase their salary and improve their status."

The trend toward providing increased training and promotional opportunities is partially prompted by statistics which reveal that there is a decrease in new openings for teachers.

According to the NEA Research Division, there was an estimated decline of 15,700 positions for beginning teachers between 1970-71. The report further pointed out that the critical age for college graduates, 20-24, had had a proportionately greater increase in unemployment since 1969 than had the whole labor force.

The new 23,000 teaching positions in public elementary and secondary schools in 1972 created because of enrollment growth, as reported by the NEA, was the lowest in 20 years.

The same report stated that as a result of general increase in unemployment, especially in new teaching positions, fewer experienced teachers were leaving present assignments, and fewer were transferring to other schools. Fewer still were interrupting their careers at all.

As a result, 111,100 qualified graduates of teacher education programs were still seeking teaching positions in the fall of 1972 and were unable to find them. Unemployment in the teaching profession has become a serious national problem.

The proportion of graduates of teacher education programs who were continuing to seek employment through November 1st was only one percent in 1968, but nearly eight percent in 1971. Most institutions had no follow-up information on nearly 23 percent on their 1971 graduates who were preparing to enter teaching. Many likely settled on positions where a college degree was not required.

State education leaders reported that many experienced teachers, not protected by sabbatical leave policies, and who returned for advanced degrees, and who interrupt their careers temporarily for other reasons, are also contributing to the teacher unemployment problem. That number is said to be on the increase.

The following table illustrates the general condition of teacher supply and demand as reported by state departments of education between 1968-72.

TABLE 2

General Condition of Teacher Supply and Demand as Reported By State Departments of Education Personnel, 1968-1972

General condition of teacher supply and demand	Number of states reporting conditions as of fall				
	1968	1969	1970	1971	1972
Substantial shortage of applicants	5	2	0	0	0
Some shortage of applicants	17	12	2	0	1
Shortage of applicants in some subject areas and excess in others	19	32	35	24	20
Sufficient applicants to fill positions	1	1	7	0	2
Some excess of applicants	0	2	1	11	9
Substantial excess of applicants	0	0	4	13	15
Valid appraisal not possible with present information	8	1	1	2	3

But the heart of the problem seems not to be in shortages in total numbers, but in the distribution of teacher assignments within the school. It may be more true than not that many teachers are misassigned, and that they consequently hold positions for which they need further training.

But knowing all this leaves the active administrator with small consolation. Programs must be planned to include all teachers. His or her general concerns are immediate, and do not usually extend to the career aspirations of his staff.

Usually it is taken for granted that older teachers will, for the most part remain, a few of the younger ones transfer, and perhaps a few leave for marriage, mobility, or other jobs. Now, by and large in inflationary years, teachers are remaining, but for reasons associated with employment and not necessarily career fulfillment.

An honest survey of the staff's career goals, perhaps conducted for the benefit of the county or district, could provide the necessary information upon which to base a sound and continuous training program.

Principals especially could determine very early in the school year which teachers are unconditionally committed, first to a career in education, and second to a career in teaching. Those who are only experimenting with teaching or education might constitute a different category for training the staff. Seminars might later explore how an individual can contribute his or her expertise to teaching, while

exploring the advantages of other careers in the field of education, or in other professions.

A sample procedure for estimating and defining career expectations would include something like the following:

1. *The identification of career expectations of the staff*

The whole staff could participate in the development of instruments that measured values, capabilities, teaching limitations, knowledge of educational opportunities, and potential contribution to the profession.

2. *Orientation towards alternative careers in education*

Teachers wanting to remain in the profession, but not necessarily in teaching, could have a different inservice program than teachers wishing to remain in teaching.

3. *Selection of teachers*

An active inservice training program could be built around career aspirations of teachers, and thus they could in a sense identify for themselves programs and projects that would increase their teaching proficiency, upward mobility, or temporary career adjustment.

At the heart of defining career expectations is the ability of administrators to help teachers define their own expectations about their futures in the profession and in teaching.

Defining Performance Expectations

Teachers want to define their own expectations for performance. They will, of course, sometimes relate their performance to student progress. But it is likely that their performance also relates to the job environment and work conditions.

What many teachers might say they need would form a list something like this:

- not teaching the same class repeatedly during the day
- knowing some specific teaching techniques
- not having to confront and deal with "difficult" students
- knowing what research says about learning
- having their ideas accepted by the administration

The issues in teacher performance revolve around the issue of who determines teacher performance. Is it to be set by the achievement standards of students? By the standards set for the profession by the state; teacher associations/unions, and the like? By the school staff itself? By the central administration?

In the long run, there may never be complete unanimity. But the local teacher community will be more aware and knowledgeable if an agreeable compromise of what they can do locally is explored.

The wise administrator will also probably encourage the deliberations of teachers to develop their own standards for minimal teaching performance.

Designing Curriculums for Educating Teachers

The life blood of any school system is a carefully planned inservice education program for the entire professional staff. Competence is more imperative than ever as we continue to expect dramatic changes in teaching, research, technology, curriculum development, and methodologies.

Two concepts guide the education of teachers: requisite knowledge and teaching techniques — knowing and doing.

No knowledge is old, but it can be forgotten. An experienced teacher cannot learn enough about philosophies of curriculum development, educational sociology, educational anthropology, and the growing fields of child and adolescent psychology.

But how does an administrator decide which, among apparently equally crucial tracks to an inservice program — foundations, discipline development, or teaching techniques — is the most crucial. The answer depends on the needs of the staff, as outlined earlier. Whichever the decision, the emphasis is on continual preparation, not just entrance and exit teaching requirements. The reason is simple: the learning worlds of the prospective and experienced teacher are the same.

Building a curriculum design for teacher education in a school system depends ultimately on knowing the specific needs of the children and youth. It also depends on knowing the professional needs of teachers.

Administrators need to decide early just how teachers will be a part of the decision-making process

- as selectors of programs
- as implementors of programs
- as designers of programs
- some combination

If teachers will not be the key decision-makers in the design, who will be? Will it involve another administrator's time? How much will it cost?

The question is ultimately larger than just satisfying the immediate requirements of initiating a curriculum design for teachers. It is in the final analysis a response by the school system as to who should control the process of educating experienced teachers, and what the criteria should be. That decision is a crucial one, needs to be made early, has to be fair, and must be known by everyone.

The aggregate result could be the establishment of a Teacher

Center with an attendant advisory council composed of representative teachers and administrators, even students.

Task forces could investigate and recommend changes in curriculum, instruction and new trends in such topics as

- drug use and abuse
- new inservice training models
- differentiated staffing programs and models
- effective community participation
- environmental education
- alcohol use and safety

Each component once developed for discussion or dissemination by a task force could then expand into workshops, symposia, small group discussions or large group presentations. Pilot efforts could test the feasibility and desirability and receptivity of proposed effort to include larger audiences.

Training supervisors or master teachers could be on call in participating schools to present individual modules or short courses in their specialty as the need develops and the number of participants warrants.

Two distinct but related activities are suggested: the establishment of a Teacher Education Center to coordinate the inservice activities, and the development of specific training modules based on an analysis of a Needs Assessment of students and teachers.

How does a large urban school system like Los Angeles go about the task of setting up a staff development branch, equipped organizationally, to respond to the needs of 600 schools and 250,000 students? How can a large urban school complex establish a Teacher Education Center?

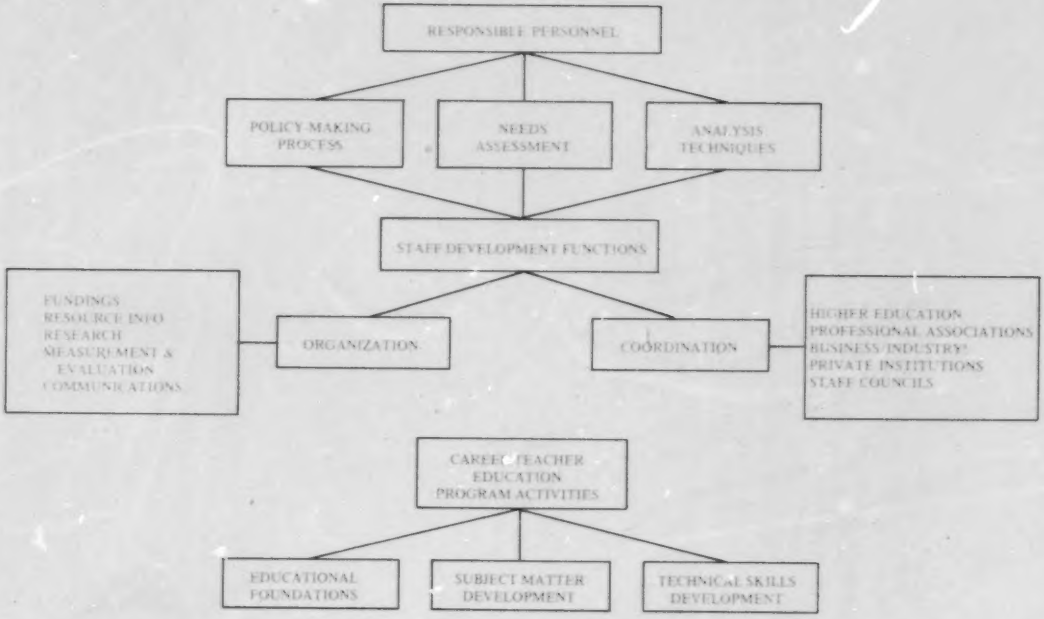
The model for Los Angeles Unified School District is similar to the model proposed here. The schematic reflects the thinking (in early 1973) of a career leadership development program contemplated by the central administration. It could be equally useful for a smaller district or even a school.

The "responsible personnel" are those who manage or advise on the program. They could be existing administrators, a council composed of administrators and teachers or any combination. The staff development functions might be those included in the model.

The activities themselves would reflect the three development areas: foundations, subject matter or discipline, and technical skills. Additional units or topics could include administrative training exercises, management training techniques, curriculum kits, etc.

In the long run, each Center should develop its own model for its functions and activities after agreeing on basic principles for proceeding.

TABLE 3



A MODEL FOR A TEACHER EDUCATION CENTER
OR STAFF DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM

Simulating a Pilot Project

Let's take an example of how a system or school could go about developing a brief seminar on the technical skills of teaching. We could use those developed through Microteaching techniques at Stanford University and the Far West Laboratory at Berkeley, Calif. Let's further assume that these technical skills include the following available components:

1. Establishing Set
2. Establishing Appropriate Frames of Reference
3. Achieving Closure
4. Recognizing and Obtaining Attending Behavior
5. Providing Feedback
6. Employing Rewards and Punishments
7. Control of Participation
8. Redundancy and Repetition
9. Illustrating and Use of Examples
10. Asking Questions
11. Use of Higher Order Questions
12. Use of Probing Questions
13. Teacher Silence and Non-Verbal Cues
14. Student-Initiated Questions
15. Integrative Skills
16. Varying the Stimulus Situation
17. Pre-Cuing

Teachers in a training module could be led through a cycle of teach/reteach/critique/reteach, and thus demonstrate to their own satisfaction and that of other teachers their knowledge of that skill in teaching.

Technique alone, however, does not produce great teaching. The complexities of the classroom are such that programs of professional growth will need to reckon with attitudes, as well as methods and information. Substantive knowledge, instructional finesse, and interpersonal skills will have to be consolidated.

We might simulate a project that is not aimed at merely the technical skills.

Statements of specific statements about teacher performance of any kind, however, will be worded in relation to the student. Such statements should always include the exact behavior the student is supposed to demonstrate. If teachers aren't evaluated on how students perform, the whole question of evaluation is a charade.

Procedures for stimulating a pilot project will be similar to those for designing a learning continuum for students or a Needs Assessment. This might be as follows:

1. establishing sequence

2. defining desired objectives behaviorally
3. identifying suggested activities
4. developing materials
5. evaluating results

A test or simulated project would be inclusive of teachers, knowledge, skills and abilities, attitudes and commitment, appreciation, and whatever else is deemed significant. Mostly they would be the relationship between the teacher and student, or the teacher and other people.

Obviously, there is a variety of human experiences of how to influence or persuade others (the best form of teaching) that cannot or do not take place in any educational setting.

A simulated analysis of agreed-upon tasks for teachers could distinguish and test for inferred or normative behaviors, those which we expect teachers as a general rule to have and demonstrate.

If we assume that what is learned is a capability, then we can break out the specifics of that knowledge and behavior into such tasks as:

- how teachers respond given certain stimuli, or exposed to predictable situations
- how teachers identify and distinguish between different kinds of learning (how they discriminate between, in the words of the learning psychologists, multiple stimuli)
- sequences of situations
- associations of disparate learning categories (concepts, principles, and strategies for solving problems, to name a few)

Thus a pilot test or simulation becomes anything that tests our satisfaction, whatever we assume to be true given our criterion for acceptance.

The society we expect our students to become a part of will be open, compassionate and productive to the degree our schools are. And our schools will be to the extent our teachers are. And teachers will be only to the extent their educational experiences are. They can be all these if we design in our curriculums for them what kind of compassion, openness and productivity we expect.

CHAPTER 4

Assuming New Leadership Roles

Testing Assumptions About New Staffing Patterns

The shortcomings of school staffing issues are the result, not of misdirection, but of uncorrected obsolescence. It is unfortunate that this form of organizing the schools has become nearly inviolate.

The concept of differentiated teaching personnel, for teachers and administrators alike for assuming new leadership roles, is based on the premise that teachers should have responsible decision-making powers in the planning and execution of curricula and instruction.

One of the key questions is how to increase professional teaching competence. A new definition of the teacher's role will have to consider diffusing decisions about curriculum and instruction. The answer is not simply to increase the number of teachers, or aides for that matter, but to allow them to share more in decisions that affect their instructional responsibilities.

What kind of elements go into a new staffing pattern based on differentiated roles and responsibilities? One response is to use a teacher adviser system.

Teachers are appointed to salaried positions without a clear idea of just what their role is supposed to be in the general learning process and progress of the student. He or she may teach them something called English I, for example, and feel justifiably satisfied when they have mastered moderately all the several units in the assigned textbook. Doesn't it seem illogical and educationally unreasonable for a school, especially a secondary school, to attempt to isolate all of its students into compartmentalized learning units without placing a competent and experienced teacher at their disposal to help them integrate their knowledge of all subjects?

Thus, one of the major weaknesses of the current structure of the present teaching pattern is the lack of student learning integration. There are no teaching responsibilities based on student learning, except occasionally in vocational education and special education. The differentiation is into subjects and teachers of subjects. The assumptions are that each teacher is equally competent in the technical skills of teaching as well as in subject matter. Ironically, the

assumption must be true since there is an equal distribution of class load.

In designing any new way of organizing teachers, we must preface our scheme with several assumptions.

First, teachers will never conform in every respect to a conceptual scheme. It is the creativity and ingenuity of interpretation which an individual brings to his task that really defines the position to which he is assigned. We usually disregard, but cannot ignore, the uniqueness of personalities in a conceptual design, because teachers define the role assigned them according to their perceptions of its responsibilities.

Second, the need for a new organizational change is prompted in part because of the current inefficiency of the operation. The situation is comparable to that of the medical profession at the turn of the century when general practitioners performed their services without technical assistance, nurses and other skilled medical personnel.

Third, the teaching profession has never modified itself to adapt to accelerated growth, either laterally or vertically. The teaching profession is in need of a new teaching model to provide for its own normal growth and development.

How to Define New Responsibilities

Except for teaching and a few examples of differentiated staffing, there are few viable, working alternatives to the present concept of the teacher. Instead of encouraging experimentation in staffing, schools have prematurely allowed an organizational structure of staffing to crystallize and harden.

Decisions about the basis of staff utilization precede plans about how the staff gets organized. In other words, we need to know why we are reorganizing the staff before we begin re-shuffling assignments — a mistake early differentiated staff programs made.

The question still remains of how to proceed in developing a rationale for building a new staffing model. A model is, after all, a symbol, a metaphor. Its beauty lies in its consistency. It is not necessarily an architectural design or a blueprint of what is to be done. It is a suggested way of operating.

The purpose for developing this model is not so that an administrator can compute total staff or personnel requirements. The purpose of this model is to help delineate staff responsibilities, not staff requirements. There are no examples of numbers of students (no quick way to figure ratios), costs of materials, amount of human energy required, or time necessary for achieving goals. Such mea-

sures, are of course, essential in the operation of a school's program. But they are not a part of this model for developing flexibility in the staff.

The differentiation of staff responsibilities is a way of emphasizing the necessity of accommodating expanded and diverse student interests, and simultaneously of managing the learning activities to best advantage. It is not necessary to detail thoroughly every task that a teacher might have to perform in each suggested level. To compose catalogues of teacher tasks and to use such lists as a basis for delegation of authority seems redundant. It is most important initially, to outline carefully the different units in the management of learning, and then to decide who should be responsible. The differentiation is not a way of establishing load, but priority of tasks. The first consideration, then, is to decide what the school is responsible for, and then re-think who should be assigned responsibility for each function or unit.

The purpose is first to differentiate student learning needs into activities associated with how the learning process is managed within or between schools.

Suggested major activities are: instructional modes, curricula, facilities, testing and counseling, teacher evaluation and teacher responsibilities for students. In this model, these activities are illustrative of what are considered important components of the management of learning. They are not meant to be definitive of the total school's program. The process of assuming new leadership roles presumes that a staff, with the help of the administration, will first discuss the nature of the school's responsibilities, and formulate realistic and obtainable goals.

Responsibilities are assigned to teachers whose capabilities and/or training qualify them to manage phases of student learning. The key point is that responsibilities for teaching are grounded in the learning process. This model does not ignore an individual teacher's knowledge of a subject and teaching competence, but builds on a teacher's multiple skills.

In the illustration in Table 4, the vertical dimension illustrates the kinds and varieties of activities within the school, and the horizontal dimension illustrates the levels of authority. The kinds of activities are not complete, but only illustrative.

Three levels of responsibility are suggested. There may be more. But three distinguish between what are clearly administrative duties. They are not a pyramid of authority or a structured chain of command. Rather, they should be thought of as ways in which teachers can share responsibility and at the same time strengthen their skills in differing functions of the school's program. Teachers can partici-

pate more broadly in the total learning and instructional components and not just their classroom environments.

The three levels of responsibility are designated *major, subordinate* and *planning*. A major responsibility is one which is accountable for the operation, continuance and assessment of any particular unit of the management learning model. A subordinate responsibility is one which is assistance in the actual operation. A planning responsibility is one which is assistance in the designing of the operation and its evaluation.

In defining new levels of responsibility for teachers, it is important to keep in mind that the management of learning — how we as educators structure the learning process for students — is the basic premise upon which all lines of responsibility should be drawn. The question of staff development is only answerable in the context of how it affects the continuous learning of students. Even though teachers are charged with the responsibility for instruction, they are rarely given the opportunity to change procedural patterns let alone try "innovations" based on their educational convictions. Their service on committees and councils only serves to heighten this fundamental dichotomy between their understanding of the management of learning and decisions made by administrative consensus.

The assumption therefore has to be that teaching personnel differentiated in responsibility will demonstratively improve the program of instruction. Because it has not been widely adopted as practice, evidence that it will not be successful is conjectural and inconclusive. It will work if we want to make it work.

As you can see from Table 4, responsibility levels were assigned to activities in managing the school's learning process. In the subsequent description of responsibilities at least four different kinds of teachers are proposed: *assistant, associate, senior,* and *master.* They are different because of the nature of their teaching and other related school responsibilities they share in the management of learning. They conspicuously do not hold any responsibility for the management of the school and its maintenance. Their responsibilities are linked to teaching and not to personnel, logistics, finances or similar administrative duties.

The proposed four teacher levels are arbitrary; there is nothing magical about the four. However, they are suggested to clearly distinguish between what we commonly associate with the roles of administrator, teacher and aide. These suggested levels differentiate teaching, learning and similar activities. What is proposed is a model that distinguishes tasks the "teacher" can and should perform. That is not to say that certain tasks cannot also be performed by what we understand as "aides."

However, we begin from the *nature of the tasks* rather than the classroom and suggest *that* as a starting point for the assignment of responsibilities relating to the instructional program. I intentionally do not begin with the "teacher", decide he or she has "too many duties" and as a matter of convenience add someone called an "aide" to those tasks the teacher would rather not do.

In many quarters, that addition of another "uncredentialed" aide in the classroom is known as differentiated staffing. In this model of flexible staffing the differentiation is between what we currently understand by the term *classroom teacher.*

Examples of New Teaching Responsibilities

*The Assistant Teacher** Small group instruction is a powerful learning model and instructional technique. The less experienced teacher, as let us say an Assistant Teacher (not a teachers' aide or paraprofessional, but a certified teacher with limited experience with students) might assume a major responsibility. The responsibility for small group instruction is a major one, but the number of students is less. Coping in a major way with small groups places the aspiring career teacher directly in contact with individual and group learning problems without the strain associated with control, discipline and oversized classes.

The small group can serve as the setting where the Assistant Teacher can perfect his skills in closer contact with students than is now possible in larger self-contained classrooms.

The second major responsibility of the Assistant Teacher is the evaluation of teacher interns or aides. The process of teacher evaluation, critical in the traditional school, will be doubly important with flexible staffing. It is a position responsibility in the model structure and not just an individual responsibility. The function of evaluation, then, will in practice be conducted by a team of Assistant Teachers, as is commonly done in colleges.

Their evaluation will be based on performance of intern responsibilities. Apart from observation, intern responsibility might include direction of a small group discussion or laboratory experience, knowledge of various testing procedures, use of facilities, development of curriculum, use of instructional modes with modular scheduling and the differing responsibilities of teachers and students. Therefore, introduction into differentiated staffing not only should be comprehensive of the program, but entrance into the profession should be marked by performance standards at the outset — perhaps a test and/or job interview — rather than the traditional and

* See Figure I, "Responsibility Model for the Assistant Teacher," page 48.

TABLE 4

Activities and Responsibilities in the Management of Learning

	Major Responsibility	Subordinate Responsibility	Planning Responsibility
Instructional Mode:			
large group	senior	associate	master
small group	assistant	associate	senior
individually directed study	senior	master	assistant
Curriculum:			
unit packages	associate	senior	assistant
sequencing	master	senior	associate
programs	senior	master	associate
experiments	master	senior	associate
Facilities:			
resource center	senior	associate	assistant
accessible labs	associate	assistant	senior
Testing/Counseling:			
coordinating	associate	senior	assistant
designing	senior	master	associate
experimenting	master	senior	associate
Teacher Evaluation:			
assistant	associate	senior	master
associate	senior	master	assistant
senior	master	associate	assistant
master	principal	senior	associate
interns/aides	assistant	associate	senior
Students:			
academic advisor	senior	master	associate
outstanding	master	senior	assistant
deficient (including special education)	master	senior	assistant

oftentimes meaningless and defeating *rites de passage* that characterize the present teaching novice.

Consequently, all Assistant Teachers could collectively rate prospective teachers or interns or arrive at consensus evaluations based on criteria established for their differing responsibilities. At heart is the issue that not all interns will be interchangeable either, and therefore the evaluation will take into consideration the fact that interns as potential experienced teachers will have varying talents, and will operate best only within the range of those talents.

The *subordinate responsibility* of the Assistant Teacher is to help in the operation of the accessible laboratories. For example, an assistant science teacher might be present as a resource person to assist students while they perform experiments.

The myriad *planning responsibilities* are to enable the Assistant Teacher to gain experience in as many phases of the school's program as possible without assuming full responsibility. Thus the Assistant Teacher aids in the planning of individually directed study programs, development of individual unit-packages of performance criteria in his subject-area specialty, the resource center, planning coordination of the testing program throughout the school, the evaluation of Associate and Senior teachers and responsibility for both outstanding and deficient students.

Qualifications, specific expertise, and background must be considered in a school's best use of an Assistant Teacher, probably the majority of the less experienced on the staff. As a result, the present model is designed to close the now frequent gap in faculty communication. Assistant Teachers' planning responsibilities would most likely substantially reduce the beginning teacher's problems of adjustment, and would aid in establishing a stronger rapport with the more experienced teachers. Increased communication without increased responsibility would give the inexperienced teacher vital encouragement at the inception of his career in teaching. The Assistant Teacher is no less a professional than other "teachers;" the responsibilities are just not the same.

*The Associate Teacher.** As the size of the planning responsibility decreases, the number of major responsibilities increases. As a given teacher's competence increases, the teacher assumes more responsibility for decision making in the operation of the school's program.

Major responsibilities include the development of unit packages for the curriculum, evaluation of the Assistant Teacher, coordination of the testing program, and the accessible laboratories. Coor-

* See Figure II, "Responsibility Model for the Associate Teacher," page 49.

dination of testing and the development of unit packages go hand in glove with the ongoing measurement of student progress. The Associate Teacher might be a counselor trainee. The Associate Teacher's major responsibility for the accessible labs means that he or she is primarily responsible for making equipment and facilities available to students when such would be most appropriate in their learning sequence. The primary idea of an accessible lab is to free staff and students from artificial restrictions on learning progress. Laboratories might be physical education gyms, office machine centers, language labs, reading improvement rooms, programmed materials centers, mechanical drafting centers, and so on. They should be open to students when needed. Most students are capable of learning on their own if they are provided with instructional alternatives and if facilities are at their disposal.

The Associate Teacher might schedule students within and outside regular school hours, in or out of certain labs to work on special projects, or to join a particular group for a unit of work. These duties and administrative functions could all be a part of the major responsibility for the accessible labs. Or the Associate Teachers could be assigned to work with special students on lab projects. They could monitor student progress and develop procedures for unsuccessful students to accelerate their progress. They could keep track of supplies and equipment with the help of paraprofessionals and establish priorities for requests for overflow demands on certain facilities.

The Associate Teacher is not merely a link between the duties of the Assistant and Senior Teachers. The involvement at all levels of interaction makes the Associate Teacher a key figure in the success of the school's program.

*The Senior Teacher.** The Senior Teacher is one of the strongest instructional leaders in the school because the obligation spans the large group and individually directed study programs, as well as the academic advisor program. The distinction between the necessity for student time during the day for individual study and the need for student direction by more professional staff members illustrates the relevance and importance of a role like that of the Senior Teacher. The role is one of an instructional leader balancing both large groups and personal student interaction.

The function of an *individually directed study* program is not to give students leisure time, but to provide them ample time for assuming a large portion of the responsibility for the management of their own learning. The kind of learning in which the student exercises the option of pursuing the course of study — its length and

* See Figure III, "Responsibility Model for the Senior Teacher," page 50.

depth and sequence — is not entirely novel. The new idea is that the student can exercise an option in the choice of how he or she wants to implement learning progress. An increasing number of students in schools can rationally assume a more appreciable share of the responsibility to develop their special talents and interests. The argument that the school can refuse the request of a student to spend time studying, say, entomology, when it is not a part of the regular curriculum, can no longer be educationally defended.

For a school to maintain that it is meeting students' needs while denying individual requests for learning advancement, or not even suggesting extra courses, is patently unrealistic. The question is what to do with students who acquire basic skills earlier than others and who want to pursue their independent and unique growth patterns.

An *academic advisor* is a counselor of academic affairs. Each teacher in the management of learning is responsible in some way for advising students, especially those who share interests whether or not they share the advisor's class. Because a school has a variable course structure, teachers have more time to advise students on subject-matter content, vocational possibilities, college courses and so on. Note that an academic advisor only advises scholastically.

*The Master Teacher.** The need for a Master Teacher is not simply to provide a position among teachers comparable in pay to an administrative executive. Nor is it simply to create a top echelon of teachers to prevail over and evaluate less effective teachers who happen to have had less formal training. There are students academically prepared for knowledge and experience which some current practices cannot develop. Likewise, there are students who find it difficult to maintain academic pace with the majority of students in any given class or in all classes. The Master Teacher's primary task is to provide remediation for students deficient in certain subjects (not just special education students), and programs and direction for students who are outstanding in certain subjects (not just the gifted). In the curriculum and instruction of the school, the responsibility is for the individual student who is not, in the common educational parlance, average in ability.

Let us look at the Master Teacher's responsibility for students academically handicapped from a student's viewpoint. Let us suppose a high school junior is receiving the following grades at the end of the first marking period:

English	D
American History	D

* See Figure IV, "Responsibility Model for the Master Teacher," page 51.

Mechanical Drawing	C
Mathematics	D
Physical Education	B
Art II	B

Overall, if an administrator — or assuming a flexible staff, a Master Teacher — were to evaluate such progress, it would be naive to assume that a quantitative measure, such as grade point average, was a valid indicator of learning progress. The grade point average for this particular hypothetical student is 1.8.

What is clear is that the student is doing poorly in the substantive "academic" pursuits: English, history, and math, and is not classified as mildly retarded. What is not clear is why or, more specifically, where his or her genuine learning potential lies. Decisions about the shape of a future curriculum for this particular student or those like him or her must come from an experienced educator. The common characteristics of laziness or lack of motivation are insufficient to explain poor academic progress.

Since the similarity of this particular pattern of proposed grades is often more typical, at least in its pattern, than not, it is imperative that an educator skilled in the nature of learning, the structure and sequence of the curriculum, states of readiness, methods of instruction and so on, be responsible for deciding how best to develop this person's individuality. The emphasis is on the person, and integrating knowledge, not on a subject. That person is the Master Teacher.

The student might be doing poorly for any one or more reasons:

- Deficiency in basic skills, e.g., reading and/or writing
- Inadequate home environment
- Nutritional deficiencies
- Lack of subject readiness
- More enthusiastic appreciation of one subject rather than another
- Misunderstandings with one or more teachers
- Specific learning disabilities

The discovery of any one of these probable causes of slower academic progress, or the interaction of one or more of them, will dictate a different kind of decision by the Master Teacher. The symptoms of lack of intellectual progress might not have an intellectual source. Affective and psychomotor domains also will effect changes in behavior. The point is that someone on the staff — the Master Teacher — will have the responsibility for holding periodic conferences with slower students to evaluate constantly their current scholastic status and to arrange new learning experiences for them.

Let us contrast this academically deficient student with an outstanding high school junior who is receiving the following marks:

English	A
American Government	B
Chemistry	A
French III	A
Band	A
Physical Education	B

Conferences with teachers point up that he is "doing very well," has a high level of knowledge of specifics, comprehension, application, analysis, and synthesis in all subjects, yet his high level of interest is only in languages. A Master Teacher in that subject field might find ways to accommodate this high interest level with this high ability, providing he can maintain performance in the other subjects. The Master Teacher's decision might simply be to free portions of the scheduled time during the school day so that the student can perform as he or she sees fit.

The Master Teacher's emphasis on the *individual rather than on the group needs* of students, so long uncharacteristic of traditional secondary instruction, is an attempt to reduce scholastic group norms and to focus the efforts of the most qualified members of the staff on developing individual creative endeavors. Because of this emphasis, the other major responsibilities of the Master Teacher center around curriculum sequencing and experimentation, and experimental test programs.

These responsibilities evolve from the widening interests of the superior and creative students and from the need for practice in basic skills and remediation in learning experience of others. The Master Teacher will have to devise, possibly within one subject area, differing methods of evaluation for the student who has just learned a skill or technique and for the one who is learning direct transfer of principles and generalizations. The Master Teacher will have to experiment with tests that can discriminate, for example, verbal facility and highly creative language potential.

A final major responsibility of the Master Teacher is evaluation of the Senior Teacher — a professional assessment of all the responsibilities of the Senior Teacher.

The Master Teacher's *subordinate responsibilities* underline how the obligations support the learning vagaries and shifting needs of individual students, as well as the strong broad program of general education courses in language arts, history, science, and mathematics. The Master Teacher assists the Senior Teachers operating the individually directed study programs, designing the testing program, directing the special programs of the curriculum, and managing the academic advisor program. Each of the Master Teacher's functions broadens the potential of the school to provide the re-

sources, both human and material, that individual students find appropriate at any given time in their learning growth.

Evaluating Successful Staffs

The role of the Master Teacher must be thought of in a wholly new way. Traditionally, a teacher's subject-matter competence or experience determined whether or not he or she was capable of handling 100 or more students a day. It would be difficult, perhaps even presumptuous, to attempt to outline a typical day for the Master Teacher, or indeed for any of the teacher models. It would not be an accumulation of responsibilities. If a model has any merit, it is, first of all, in its direction of scope and its suggestibility, and, second, in its application. The levels of responsibility for the Master Teacher are assumed to be true from felt student needs and school provisions. It is believed that the model for the Master Teacher recognizes that a school staff member is needed to accommodate those needs.

No teacher can be expected to be an expert evaluator, testing specialist, subject-matter specialist, educational psychologist, curriculum and methodology expert, counselor and researcher.

The necessity of teacher differentiation is urgent. If teacher cooperation means something more than adjoining classrooms and occasional talks in the teachers' lounge, then it is urgent. If cooperative professional efforts means something more than weekly conference planning sessions, then it is urgent. If coordination of school functions, such as testing and curriculum, experimentation and individual study, instruction and facilities, means something more than the fact that someone, somewhere is responsible, then it is urgent.

Total implementation of the proposed model will not automatically lead to school or district staffing success. Success under any conditions will be variable. For one administrator the successful implementation of some model of flexibility in teaching personnel and some rearrangement of staffing procedures is sufficient. Another administrator might be satisfied to have introduced an innovation. Still a third administrator might measure the strengths of his or her present system against those of a flexible and differentiated staff, find the present structure lacking and decide that a reasonable facsimile of a differentiated staff is feasible. Thus, staffing success is varied and dependent in large measure upon the school's specified formal restrictions in budget, the flexibility of its design and its interpretation of a staffing model.

An administrator, however, should not confuse a paper model with a successful operating program. Nor should it be presumed that administrative or teaching problems will vanish when operations are

started with a more functional and flexible staff. Quality education demands more than mere rearrangement of teaching positions or teaching roles or responsibilities. An administrator may, in fact, discover that the need for enlightened and ingenious ways for students to learn will tax the ingenuity more than building staffing models. For unless the design he contemplated is indicative of a learning theory for students, problems such as school discipline, classroom control, details of scheduling, facilities and morale always will take precedence. It is only in how better to make or allow students to learn that the whole function of staff variability or differentiation has any significance.

FIGURE 1

RESPONSIBILITY MODEL FOR THE ASSISTANT TEACHER

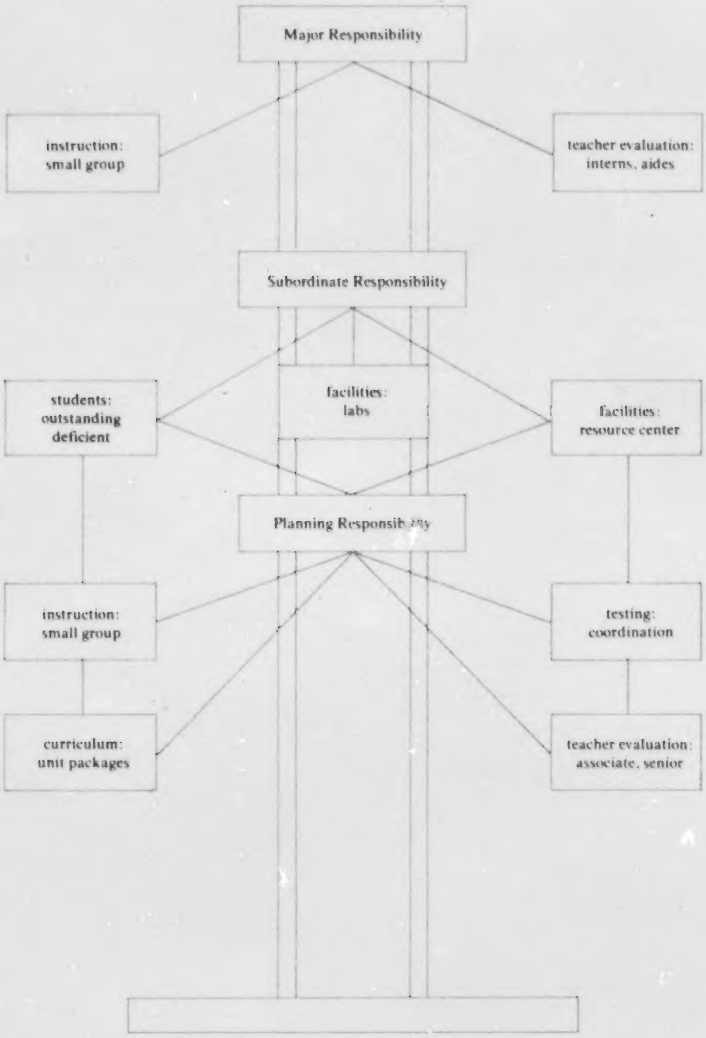


FIGURE II

RESPONSIBILITY MODEL FOR THE ASSOCIATE TEACHER

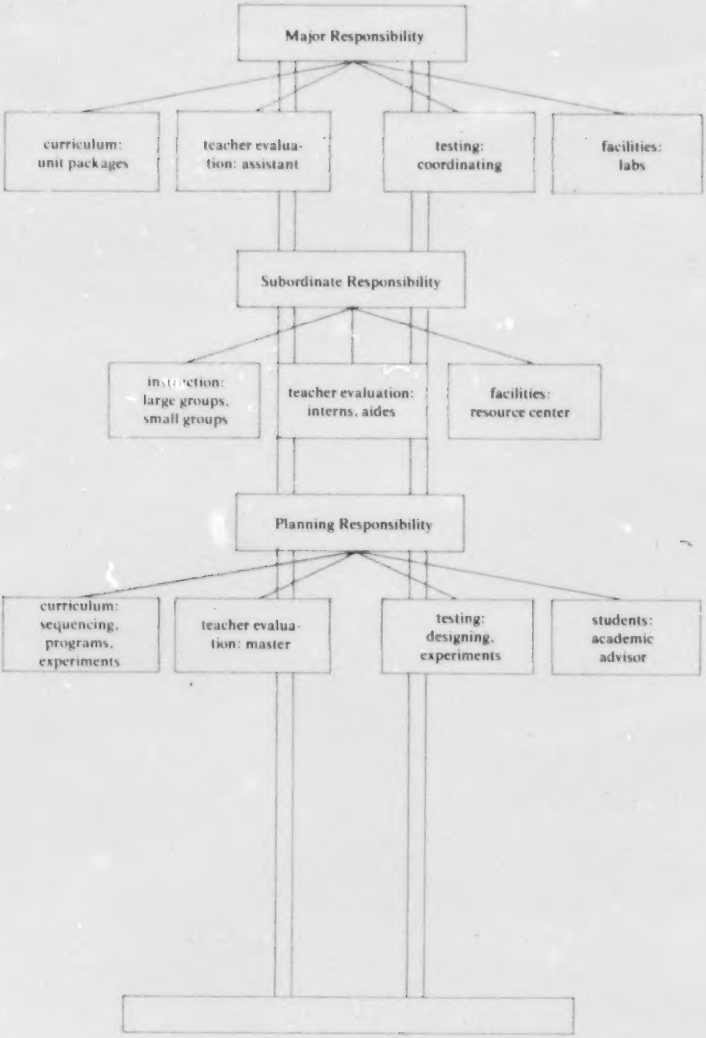


FIGURE III

RESPONSIBILITY MODEL FOR THE SENIOR TEACHER

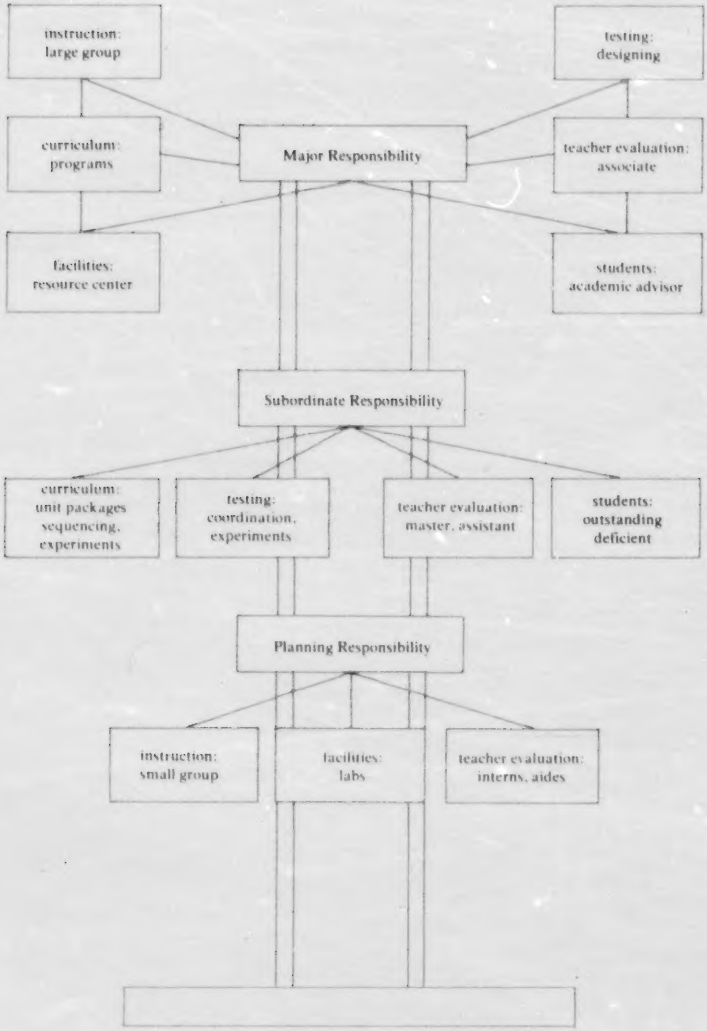


FIGURE IV

RESPONSIBILITY MODEL FOR THE MASTER TEACHER

CHAPTER 5

Budgeting for New Teaching Roles

How Teachers Compete in the Labor Market

School costs are rising faster than the growth of the economy. The rising cost of schools is largely attributable to the exponential rise in teachers' salaries, and corresponding personnel services.

The key to efficient, qualitatively better school expenditures will not be technological hardware, school architecture, or the refinement of curricula. It will likely be a recognition of teacher effectiveness and a corresponding differentiation of teacher pay.

If schools are to retain competent career teachers, then they will have to create new salary differentials and new categories based on widely differing teacher abilities. The present standardization of teacher classification, certification and uniform salary schedules does not acknowledge or promote individual teacher differences. Making teacher salaries uniform is an unfair practice to teachers of uncommon ability.

The teaching profession has simply never recognized equitably the tremendous qualitative differentials among its teaching members. As a result, teachers are, in the phrase of the economists, a noncompeting group in the labor market. They do not compete with each other within the system. The competition for their services is outside the school in the commercial world. If the wages of a plumber were $65,000 a year, many teachers would be tempted to quit teaching and learn the art of plumbing. In a large metropolitan area salaries of teachers could be adjusted to what nearby industries are paying for trained mathematicians, artists and social scientists.

Wage rates among teachers differ tremendously. This nation *does have* a differentiated salary schedule. But the differentiation is *between* school systems, not *within* the system. Since the Rodriquez challenge to the traditional method of financing public education through local property taxes was rejected by the Supreme Court, state courts and legislatures may (as the Supreme Court urged) define new systems for equalizing differences between rich and poor districts. Conceivably, that could result in re-defining the system for paying teachers.

The average wage for teachers is as hard to define as the average teacher. A teacher at the top of the salary schedule in an affluent

metropolitan suburb may be making above $18,000 annually, whereas a beginning teacher in a rural or disadvantaged area may be making less than $6000. Obviously, living costs are a differential factor. But in the long run, who is getting short-changed when a school system purchases the cheapest instructional services? Ought the cost of instructional services to be a state rather than a local responsibility?

Many school systems freeze teachers' salaries. The only bargaining point is to raise the entire salary structure. For the school system that does not review and revise periodically its salary structure and schedule, recruitment of new teachers with even the same quality will become increasingly difficult. There may be a slackening off in the quality of those who remain.

But the ultimate weapon of the teacher in conjunction with the union is the strike. In every other strike of labor against management, the worker makes the sacrifice of loss of pay in order to achieve higher benefits later. The teacher strike often does not conform to that model. Many state laws require that children attend school a certain number of days (usually 180). When the teacher withholds his or her services, he or she sometimes does not lose either working time or salary, since schools remain open by law regardless. In other words, a teacher will recover days lost on a strike, and in addition receive the added rewards of the strike. The risk is often minimal.

The options are protecting himself or herself and possibly the family from rising prices. The teacher is also protecting the investment made in education and as a member of a profession that has not addressed itself to differentiating its teaching responsibilities and its salaries. The teachers' strike is a predictable response given the state of an inflationary economy and the inability of schools to make the profession competitive with other professions and within itself.

Assumptions About Financial Issues in Staffing

School district salary schedules are both analytical and political problems. Logic and rigor in analysis can sometimes help the political aspects. But raising teachers' salaries or any revenue for education is not the issue here. I intend to make some assumptions about teachers' salaries which will lead to an analytical method of redesigning the structure of school staffs.

The most widely used method of computing compensation for instruction is the fixed-base salary schedule. Longevity in teaching and service within a system represent salary increments. Remuneration is cloaked in "years of experience" with little or no reference to

quality of services rendered. "Years of experience" literally means "years in teaching." Thus, teachers receive salary increments and higher wages based on:

1. Years of teaching in the system
2. Amount of training

Assumptions about the salary schedule, which constitute the bulk of any system's expenditures, are founded on the premise that basically the traditional manner of paying teachers (and other educational personnel) needs serious re-evaluation. There is no economic incentive for good teaching.

There are seven assumptions school systems could use as they ponder new ways to develop reimbursement for personnel costs.

1. *The Teacher Salary Schedule Should be Internally Consistent.* Salary payments should be fair between both teachers and administrators. The internal consistency of the schedule makes for good morale. The traditional fixed-base schedule is neither logical nor consistent with itself. Both minimum and maximum levels are usually arbitrarily fixed, and intermediate salaries are mostly rule-of-thumb.

2. *The Teacher Salary Schedule Should Reflect the Relative Difficulty in the Teaching and Learning Environment.* The question the district will have to respond to is: which students or classes or groups are the most difficult to teach, and in what order? Which teaching assignments require more competence, patience and effort? This has already occurred with certain specialists, like those responsible for teaching the retarded.

3. *The Teacher Salary Schedule Should Take into Account the Total District Resources.* Does the schedule reflect future trends of what the district will be able to afford in agreements with the bargaining agent?

4. *The Teacher Salary Schedule Should Permit Overlaps in the Total Salary Schedule.* School administrative schedules are usually linked to the teachers' salary schedule, usually described as a ratio. The gap is thus always preserved between the two schedules.

5. *The Teacher Salary Schedule Should be Differentiated.* Examples of this will be shown later. But there are two considerations, the relation of the salary structure with others, and with itself. First, teaching salaries can compete with other professions and businesses without over-inflating instructional costs. Second, people and jobs are not all alike, and therefore there are wage differentials. Schools can reward as well as recognize the tremendous qualitative differences among teachers.

6. *The Teacher Salary Schedule Ought to be Based Partially on Student Performance* — even voluntarily. Special rewards and distinctions could be built in to allow for flexibility in performance. The voluntary program could be administered by a board of teachers who would make recommendations for the disbursement of the special funds.

7. *The Teacher Salary Schedule Should Reflect Established School Priorities.* If the school system wishes to make the salary structure efficient with respect to cost, then the resources for its support must be expended in a manner which reflects the designated performance goals of the system. A district may want many inexperienced teachers. Experienced faculty cost more. The system that continually seeks younger, more inexperienced teachers who cost less can attempt to reach the same goals as the district seeking more mature, balanced and experienced teachers only at the risk of being held accountable to itself (and the public) for cost inefficiency in management and personnel use.

Determining New Salary Standards

There are generally three common methods for comparing the financial difference between differing staffing programs: dollars per child, dollars per classroom and dollars per school unit.

However, these three methods are not true for developing a financial framework or for developing a new salary standard for paying personnel. They are only true for comparing *differences* between traditional and differentiated salary structures.

Moreover, each administrator will eventually have to confront, if the differentiated pay structure is to be based on teaching competence, a differentiated instructional program, something the three common methods of computing financial costs ignore. Any study that attempts to compare the costs of a traditional versus a differentiated salary schedule will have to predicate the comparison with assumptions upon which the comparison is based. Otherwise the "more" or "less" dollar differences ("differentiated staffing will cost no more money") is not valid.

But how can a differentiated instructional design, as described earlier, not significantly increase pupil, class or unit factors? And how can it at the same time result in improved instruction?

Answering the question of cost per unit design must be preceded by answering larger questions of what criteria must interact with cost within a school system. The economics of designing an equitable and rational personnel cost for teachers lies at the root of decision-making in the system. To analyze the cost of a new salary structure

based on a flexible instructional design is to analyze how choices are made in a school setting.

The value educators place upon a total program design has generally been quantitative . . . more money. However, as much as we have been more willing to develop practical and uniform measures of inputs into the school's social system (more people, more money, more curriculum materials), we have been reluctant to develop comprehensive measures for relating money and people to the social outputs — the students. The public is certainly more apprehensive about buying unequivocable support of an educational system that doesn't relate cost to how well students perform.

Besides fiscal alternatives, the development of a program of flexible staffing involves administrative reorganization and diffused decision-making, and possibly the re-distribution of power in the educational community. Consequently, any analysis of alternative design for financing the staff is actually a study of how schools understand the economics of administering public funds that justifies the public's acceptance.

As administrators plan for flexible staffing programs, they will run headlong into not just fixed personnel costs, but the question of how to compare teaching and learning benefits with investments in staff (or investments in staff *vs.* investments in other resources, curriculum, for example). Unless some adjustments are made in cost variability, they will live with the tacit assumption that there is an elasticity of substitution in all teaching skills — that teachers are all equally competent in teaching.

Differentiated Salaries Not Merit Pay

Differentiating pay schedules is not a camouflaged merit pay system, although merit pay also involves differentiated salaries. A merit pay system only acknowledges the competence of the teacher without differentiating instructional responsibilities. Merit pay seeks to reward those teachers who demonstrate superior performance in some way. It discriminates between teachers without discriminating the instructional process through which teachers could all perform better individually.

All teachers are good, but they are not good in the same way, nor do they all have the same impact on students regardless of what they teach. Differentiating responsibilities allows them to seek their own individualized level of instructional excellence.

A differentiated salary schedule rewards those who have superior teaching skills, and also those who have assumed additional responsibilities. Merit pay is only more pay without more responsibility. It

acknowledges teaching goodness without changing the system which stifles it.

The transition from a traditional to a more flexible salary schedule, and one which reflects adjustments in the instructional program, will be basically a confrontation with major adjustments in the school's decision-making machinery.

Surveying Schools Using Differentiated Salary Schedules

School Personnel Utilization, a program once funded by the U.S. Office of Education, granted funds to schools to help them differentiate their staffs. It also attempted to achieve through various training activities a differentiation of salaries according to re-defined teaching roles and functions. Other goals were the improvement of the managerial, organizational, instructional and technological skills and attitudes of professional personnel.

Training costs for the 22 projects ranged from $10,000 to $300,000. Each funded project had indicated in writing that it would adhere to certain funding requirements which included:

1. No unit smaller than entire school would be differentiated
2. The maximum salary of the highest paid teacher would be at least double the maximum salary of the lowest category of professional personnel
3. All of the instructional staff would spend at least 25 percent of their time in direct contact with students
4. All instructional staff in the unit designated as operationally differentiated would be on the differentiated salary schedule
5. The differentiation of roles of the teaching staff would be clear to all.

The federal guidelines were not the only regulatory features. Schools still had to seek agreements with school boards, teacher unions and associations, bargaining agents, administrators and a host of formal and informal organized groups. Despite all constraints, all of the schools surveyed, through a grant from the American Federation of Teachers in 1970, indicated that they had differentiated their salary schedules.

The primary hypothesis of the study was that school systems with operating steering committees or their equivalents would receive greater acceptance in the school community for the development of the flexible, differentiated program.

Schools participating in the School Personnel Utilization program generally had governing boards or steering committees. These helped make the transition towards flexible staffing programs. What was attempted to be analyzed was the composition, representative-

ness and levels of responsibility of these committees or groups.

Did the committee, for example, assume responsibility for the adoption of a differentiated salary schedule in at least one school? Did it get the school board to approve that adoption? Were teachers a majority group on that committee, and were teacher union representatives also participants?

In sum, the major characteristics of schools selected for analysis were:

1. variation in teachers' salaries
2. variation in salary spread and the number of different teacher positions
3. school board approval of differentiated staffing
4. local funding support, and outside funding support
5. expenditures for substitutes, aides and inservice training
6. the composition and authority of the committees

A questionnaire was mailed to all 22 participating school systems funded to a total of $3 million. Twenty replied, for a 91 percent response. This was not a tight statistical study, but a descriptive one for comparing differences between federally funded programs experimenting with flexible staffing. The conclusions are not easily generalized to all other schools, but they can imply a direction for other schools preparing to begin development of a similar experiment. In general, the main conclusions were:

1. Schools tend to promote teachers from within the system. (They do not generally go outside to seek a more qualified aspirant for the higher paying positions).
2. The salary of the lowest certified instructional person was at least double both the salaries of the highest paid teacher and the highest paid instructional person. (It was questionable whether or not this was the result of specific new responsibilities or simply the wide range of the salary schedule).
3. Sixty-five percent said that their school boards had approved the adoption of a differentiated salary schedule.
4. Seventy percent indicated that they had the entire staffs of one or more schools on a differentiated salary schedule. (Yet the school boards of only 23 percent of this group had not approved such a schedule).
5. Sixty percent indicated that their school boards had appropriated additional funds for the program, and 70 percent said they received support from other sources. (The implications are that a majority of schools see enough possibilities in the program to invest in other sources, and/or that other sources may tend to support differentiated staffing programs).
6. The defeat of a school bond issue or tax-override does not

appear to retard the development of the program. (The program was not impeded where this was found to be the case).

7. Schools participating tended to spend more on teacher aides and substitute teachers than on inservice training, despite the fact that they received additional funds for training.
8. The majority of schools (75 percent) had committees composed largely of teachers, which had administrative responsibility for developing the program (71 percent). A majority of such committees had local school board approval, and had entire staffs of one or more schools on a differentiated salary schedule.

More is involved in determining the success of a flexible program that includes an alternative salary schedule than just juggling percentages and ratios. The projects surveyed came to grips with the economics of options to the traditional salary schedule for teachers, and the problems associated with teachers determining the nature and direction of the program. Many of the projects encountered for the first time more effective use of teachers and staff paradoxically within the very committee established to study the problem. Responses, judging by the data, were supportive of the common goal of experimenting with personnel cost variability — largely determined by teachers themselves.

Administrators can easily survey their own system or school using the same approach. Appoint a committee (or appoint a group with appointive responsibilities) to conduct a study of possible adoption of new salary schedules for instructional personnel based on differing teaching responsibilities. The results may be the basis for the development of an exciting program.

Sample Approaches to Setting Budget Priorities

The main purpose for developing new alternatives to the present salary schedules is that the unilateral schedule progresses in only one direction and locks in all educational personnel without regard to ability.

One alternative to the standard approach was developed a few years ago in Woodstock, Illinois. Teachers helped develop a variety of schedules that overlapped qualifications, experience and training, and tried to effect a compromise between the ability of a school system to pay its teachers a fair and equitable wage, and to reward special teaching competence. Schedules were developed for Bachelor's degree holders, Bachelor plus 15 credits, and so forth. Let's look at a facsimile of the one they developed for the Bachelor's degree. (The salary and step figures are samples.)

BACHELOR'S DEGREE

Years Teaching	A	B	C
0	$7000		
1	7500		
2	8000	$ 7500	$ 7500
3	8500	8000	
4	9000	8500	
5	9500	9000	
6		9500	
7		10000	
8		10500	15000

Standard Schedule A was the traditional schedule. Teachers received their annual increments, with the exception that the increments were somewhat larger than previously. After an X number of years there were no annual increments, and teachers became frozen on the schedule.

Schedule B was a schedule that the teacher could opt to go on. The hitch was that there was no assurance of annual increments or promotions. Advances in salary had to be earned. However, a teacher who received advances was not necessarily limited to the yearly ones. A teacher was able to advance in pay as rapidly as the schedule allowed, provided that the panel that evaluated performance approved the advance and the amount.

Note that on Schedule B there were a few more steps, also with roughly standard increments, than on Schedule A.

A teacher could elect to proceed to Schedule B from A, and take the risk of not gaining as much money as he or she would have had the teacher remained on Schedule A. The only guarantee was the salary of the previous year.

Moreover, Schedule B had another reward incentive. A participating teacher was eligible for a Quality Increase of up to $2500 over and above step increases. Once having received this amount, it became a part of the regular salary and could not be taken away. Thus, in addition to the presumed regularity of performance promotions, a teacher could have been rewarded for exceptional teaching which became a permanent part of the salary, not simply an additional honorarium.

The Quality Increase Fund was developed and administered by a panel composed mostly of teachers and administrators who developed the criteria for evaluation working 2 to 3 hours once a week over a 12-14 month period.

Let's say a teacher elected to transfer from Schedule A to B after

two years having just received tenure in the district. Based on performance, he or she receives $1,000 for that year. The following year, he or she then requests evaluation based on the present $8,500 (the equivalent of a 4th year of teaching on Schedule B). From this example, it would be possible for that teacher to have received $1,500 in two years, or even more, an impossible feat under a simple Merit Pay program or on Schedule A.

The other difference between Schedule A and B is that the salary incentive is geared toward the career-oriented teacher. There are more steps on Schedule B than on A. Recall that one of the assumptions about financial issues earlier stated in this Chapter was that the teacher salary schedule should reflect district priorities. Woodstock's priorities were in promoting and retaining career teachers.

The competition for salary increments was not based on competition with other teachers, but on individual teaching performance established by the teacher committee's evaluation qualities. Such characteristics usually included relationships with students, other teachers, parents, the profession in general, as well as effectiveness in teaching.

Schedule C was the risk schedule. It provided the opportunity for the maximum possible gain and quantum jump in salary. Again, a teacher could go by choice to Schedule C after tenure, and had the chance of reaching $15,000 (the maximum allowable in the district then) after three years, provided the evaluation of performance was satisfactory.

Those who chose to stay on Schedule A progressed in annual increments only to the top level on that schedule where they became frozen in salary, unless in the interim they chose to crosswalk to another schedule.

Three schedules for the Bachelor's degree, differentiated, each with its own internal consistency, two based on performance in teaching and not time in service, and reflecting the school's prerogatives. It can give a teacher quite a choice.

Suggestions for Evaluating Personnel Costs

The concept of return on an investment is not novel to education. Estimating precisely the extent of expenditure necessary to achieve and develop human potential will always be a value judgment about which priorities administrators wish to assign to resources, especially people. What is clear is that there are too many competing demands for painfully few resources.

The single salary schedule did reduce what were in former years major inequities. One was the large discrepancy between elementary and secondary school teachers. Another was the discrimination in

salary based on sex. Training and experience as qualifications partially eliminated those inequities.

However, having done away with past injustices, the single salary schedule now stands in the way of instructional progress. The nearly sole springboard to militancy among teachers in the last few years has been the quest towards increases in the step-by-step salary schedule. Yet many national reports dealing with financial issues for schools, including the Committee for Economic Development and Office of Education reports, have recommended some form of differentiated wages for differentiated kinds of teaching.

The view of the Committee for Economic Development is typical and apropos.

> *Teacher salaries are commonly based on seniority and the accumulation of college credits. We regard this as a serious block to the recruitment and retention of countless competent teachers and to eliciting the best efforts of teaching staffs. The variety of talent, preparation and competence required for effective and efficient teaching justifies differentiated pay scales, which in our opinion would overcome this block to improved instruction.*

Administrators planning on making the transition toward a differentiated or flexible pay scale will likely make a few assumptions.

First, the program ought to cost no more than a regular pay program under normal conditions. That is, the program will be at least as efficient as the present pay structure. It is possible that in the beginning the transitional venture will require a minimal outlay, but it will be negligible compared to the returns.

Second, teacher salaries will continue to rise (like the cost of living) regardless of whether or not a school system endorses or adopts a flexible plan.

Third, that a performance-based program of teaching accountability is essential for improving learning experiences.

Fourth, that the quality of inservice training will become more of a joint venture between schools, communities, teachers, and professional associations.

Fifth, that a flexible pay scale for teachers will help improve the quality of teaching, the development of staff training, and tangible incentives for career teachers.

Having agreed to basic premises, an administrator can begin to analyze current spending costs relating to instructional personnel. At a minimum these would include:

- inservice training costs
- substitute fees

- paraprofessional fees
- total instructional costs

Then, as an administrator you can start to analyze projected flexible pay costs, according to a mutually agreeable model developed from data gathered from the needs assessment and the flexible instructional program, in comparison with actual costs. These projections might include:

1. maximum allowable costs at the highest salary levels
2. minimum transitional costs at the "average" salary ranges
3. probable costs to support (if necessary) certain teachers so that none are adversely affected (grandfather clause)
4. reduction of substitutes

A further consideration would be the school board's plans for long range support of the program for renewing the staff, and the commitment for promoting and rewarding teaching competence. There is no more important issue, financial or otherwise, now facing schools.

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